

Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks:

1990 – 2012

APRIL 15, 2014

U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
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For more information regarding climate change and greenhouse gas emissions, see the EPA web site at <http://www.epa.gov/climatechange>.

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Preface

The United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) prepares the official U.S. Inventory of Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks to comply with existing commitments under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Under decision 3/CP.5 of the UNFCCC Conference of the Parties, national inventories for UNFCCC Annex I parties should be provided to the UNFCCC Secretariat each year by April 15.

In an effort to engage the public and researchers across the country, the EPA has instituted an annual public review and comment process for this document. The availability of the draft document is announced via Federal Register Notice and is posted on the EPA web site. Copies are also mailed upon request. The public comment period is generally limited to 30 days; however, comments received after the closure of the public comment period are accepted and considered for the next edition of this annual report.

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Executive Summary

An emissions inventory that identifies and quantifies a country's primary anthropogenic¹ sources and sinks of greenhouse gases is essential for addressing climate change. This inventory adheres to both (1) a comprehensive and detailed set of methodologies for estimating sources and sinks of anthropogenic greenhouse gases, and (2) a common and consistent mechanism that enables Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) to compare the relative contribution of different emission sources and greenhouse gases to climate change.

In 1992, the United States signed and ratified the UNFCCC. As stated in Article 2 of the UNFCCC, “The ultimate objective of this Convention and any related legal instruments that the Conference of the Parties may adopt is to achieve, in accordance with the relevant provisions of the Convention, stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. Such a level should be achieved within a time-frame sufficient to allow ecosystems to adapt naturally to climate change, to ensure that food production is not threatened and to enable economic development to proceed in a sustainable manner.”²

Parties to the Convention, by ratifying, “shall develop, periodically update, publish and make available...national inventories of anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of all greenhouse gases not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, using comparable methodologies...”³ The United States views this report as an opportunity to fulfill these commitments.

This chapter summarizes the latest information on U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emission trends from 1990 through 2012. To ensure that the U.S. emissions inventory is comparable to those of other UNFCCC Parties, the estimates presented here were calculated using methodologies consistent with those recommended in the Revised 1996 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2000), and the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry* (IPCC 2003). Additionally, the U.S. emission inventory has continued to incorporate new methodologies and data from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). The use of the most recently published calculation methodologies by the IPCC, as contained in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines, is considered to improve the rigor and accuracy of this inventory and is fully in line with the prior IPCC guidance. The structure of this report is consistent with the UNFCCC guidelines for inventory reporting.⁴ For most

¹ The term “anthropogenic,” in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

² Article 2 of the Framework Convention on Climate Change published by the UNEP/WMO Information Unit on Climate Change. See <<http://unfccc.int>>.

³ Article 4(1)(a) of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (also identified in Article 12). Subsequent decisions by the Conference of the Parties elaborated the role of Annex I Parties in preparing national inventories. See <<http://unfccc.int>>.

⁴ See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>>.

source categories, the IPCC methodologies were expanded, resulting in a more comprehensive and detailed estimate of emissions.

Box ES- 1: Methodological Approach for Estimating and Reporting U.S. Emissions and Sinks

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emissions inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in this report are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the IPCC.⁵ Additionally, the calculated emissions and sinks in a given year for the United States are presented in a common manner in line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for the reporting of inventories under this international agreement.⁶ The use of consistent methods to calculate emissions and sinks by all nations providing their inventories to the UNFCCC ensures that these reports are comparable. In this regard, U.S. emissions and sinks reported in this inventory report are comparable to emissions and sinks reported by other countries. Emissions and sinks provided in this inventory do not preclude alternative examinations, but rather this inventory report presents emissions and sinks in a common format consistent with how countries are to report inventories under the UNFCCC. The report itself follows this standardized format, and provides an explanation of the IPCC methods used to calculate emissions and sinks, and the manner in which those calculations are conducted.

On October 30, 2009, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) published a rule for the mandatory reporting of greenhouse gases (GHG) from large GHG emissions sources in the United States. Implementation of 40 CFR Part 98 is referred to as the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP). 40 CFR part 98 applies to direct greenhouse gas emitters, fossil fuel suppliers, industrial gas suppliers, and facilities that inject CO₂ underground for sequestration or other reasons.⁷ Reporting is at the facility level, except for certain suppliers of fossil fuels and industrial greenhouse gases. The GHGRP dataset and the data presented in this inventory report are complementary and, as indicated in the respective methodological and planned improvements sections in this report's chapters, EPA is using the data, as applicable, to improve the national estimates presented in this inventory.

ES.1. Background Information

Greenhouse gases trap heat and make the planet warmer. The most important greenhouse gases directly emitted by humans include CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, and several other fluorine-containing halogenated substances. Although the direct greenhouse gases CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O occur naturally in the atmosphere, human activities have changed their atmospheric concentrations. From the pre-industrial era (i.e., ending about 1750) to 2012, concentrations of these greenhouse gases have increased globally by 40, 151, and 20 percent, respectively (IPCC 2007 and NOAA/ESLR 2013). This annual report estimates the total national greenhouse gas emissions and removals associated with human activities across the United States.

Global Warming Potentials

Gases in the atmosphere can contribute to the greenhouse effect both directly and indirectly. Direct effects occur when the gas itself absorbs radiation. Indirect radiative forcing occurs when chemical transformations of the substance produce other greenhouse gases, when a gas influences the atmospheric lifetimes of other gases, and/or when a gas affects atmospheric processes that alter the radiative balance of the earth (e.g., affect cloud formation or

⁵ See <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/index.html>>.

⁶ See <http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/national_inventories_submissions/items/5270.php>.

⁷ See <<http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/emissions/ghgrulemaking.html>> and <<http://ghgdata.epa.gov/ghgp/main.do>>.

albedo).⁸ The IPCC developed the Global Warming Potential (GWP) concept to compare the ability of each greenhouse gas to trap heat in the atmosphere relative to another gas.

The GWP of a greenhouse gas is defined as the ratio of the time-integrated radiative forcing from the instantaneous release of 1 kilogram (kg) of a trace substance relative to that of 1 kg of a reference gas (IPCC 2001). Direct radiative effects occur when the gas itself is a greenhouse gas. The reference gas used is CO₂, and therefore GWP-weighted emissions are measured in teragrams (or million metric tons) of CO₂ equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.).^{9,10} All gases in this Executive Summary are presented in units of Tg CO₂ Eq.

The UNFCCC reporting guidelines for national inventories were updated in 2006,¹¹ but continue to require the use of GWP values from the *IPCC Second Assessment Report (SAR)* (IPCC 1996). This requirement ensures that current estimates of aggregate greenhouse gas emissions for 1990 to 2012 are consistent with estimates developed prior to the publication of the *IPCC Third Assessment Report (TAR)* (IPCC 2001), the *IPCC Fourth Assessment Report (AR4)* (IPCC 2007) and the *IPCC Fifth Assessment Report (AR5)* (IPCC 2013). Therefore, to comply with international reporting standards under the UNFCCC, official emission estimates are reported by the United States using SAR GWP values. All estimates are provided throughout the report in both CO₂ equivalents and unweighted units. A comparison of emission values using the SAR GWP values versus the TAR, AR4 and AR5 GWP values can be found in Chapter 1 and, in more detail, in Annex 6.1 of this report. The GWP values used in this report are listed below in Table ES-1.

The official greenhouse gas emissions presented in this report using the SAR GWP values are the final time the SAR GWP values will be used in the U.S. inventory. The United States and other developed countries have agreed to submit annual inventories in 2015 and future years to the UNFCCC using GWP values from the IPCC AR4, which will replace the current use of SAR GWP values in their annual greenhouse gas inventories.¹² The use of IPCC AR4 GWP values in future year inventories will apply across the entire time series of the inventory (i.e., from 1990 to 2013 in next year's report).

Table ES-1: Global Warming Potentials (100-Year Time Horizon) Used in this Report

Gas	GWP
CO ₂	1
CH ₄ ^a	21
N ₂ O	310
HFC-23	11,700
HFC-32	650
HFC-125	2,800
HFC-134a	1,300
HFC-143a	3,800
HFC-152a	140
HFC-227ea	2,900
HFC-236fa	6,300
HFC-4310mee	1,300
CF ₄	6,500
C ₂ F ₆	9,200
C ₄ F ₁₀	7,000
C ₆ F ₁₄	7,400

⁸ Albedo is a measure of the Earth's reflectivity, and is defined as the fraction of the total solar radiation incident on a body that is reflected by it.

⁹ Carbon comprises 12/44^{ths} of carbon dioxide by weight.

¹⁰ One teragram is equal to 10¹² grams or one million metric tons.

¹¹ See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>>.

¹² "Revision of the UNFCCC reporting guidelines on annual inventories for Parties included in Annex I to the Convention," FCCC/CP/2011/9/Add.2, Decision 6/CP.17, 15 March 2012, available at <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2011/cop17/eng/09a02.pdf#page=23>>

SF₆ 23,900

Source: IPCC (1996)

^a The CH₄ GWP includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to production of CO₂ is not included.

ES.2. Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks

In 2012, total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were 6,525.6 Tg, or million metric tons, CO₂ Eq. Total U.S. emissions have increased by 4.7 percent from 1990 to 2012, and emissions decreased from 2011 to 2012 by 3.4 percent (227.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.). The decrease from 2011 to 2012 was due to a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels consumed by power producers to generate electricity due to a decrease in the price of natural gas, a decrease in transportation sector emissions attributed to a small increase in fuel efficiency across different transportation modes and limited new demand for passenger transportation, and much warmer winter conditions resulting in a decreased demand for heating fuel in the residential and commercial sectors. Since 1990, U.S. emissions have increased at an average annual rate of 0.2 percent. Figure ES-1 through Figure ES-3 illustrate the overall trends in total U.S. emissions by gas, annual changes, and absolute change since 1990.

Table ES-2 provides a detailed summary of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions and sinks for 1990 through 2012.

Figure ES-1: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas

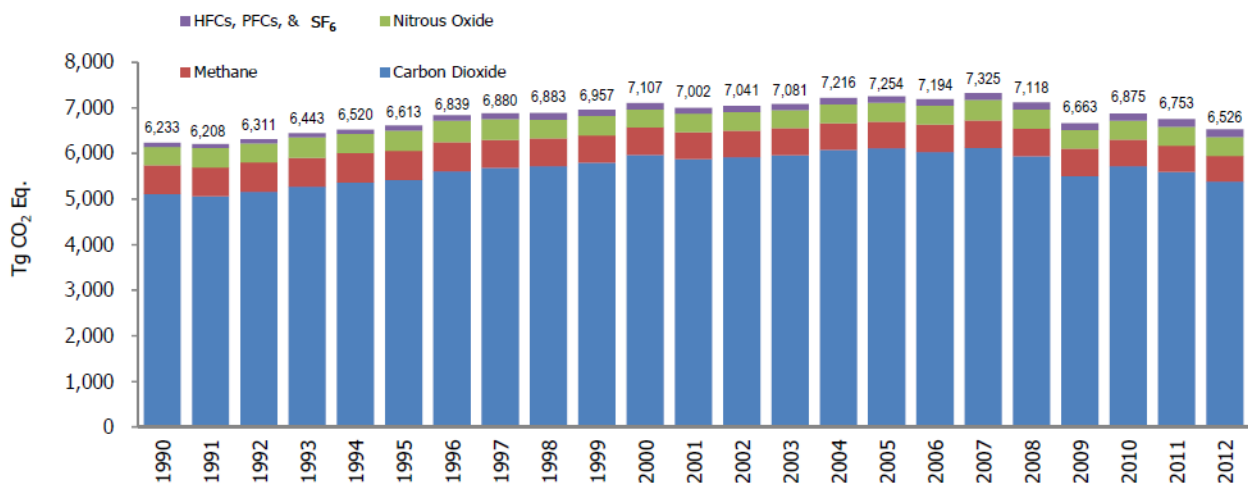


Figure ES-2: Annual Percent Change in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

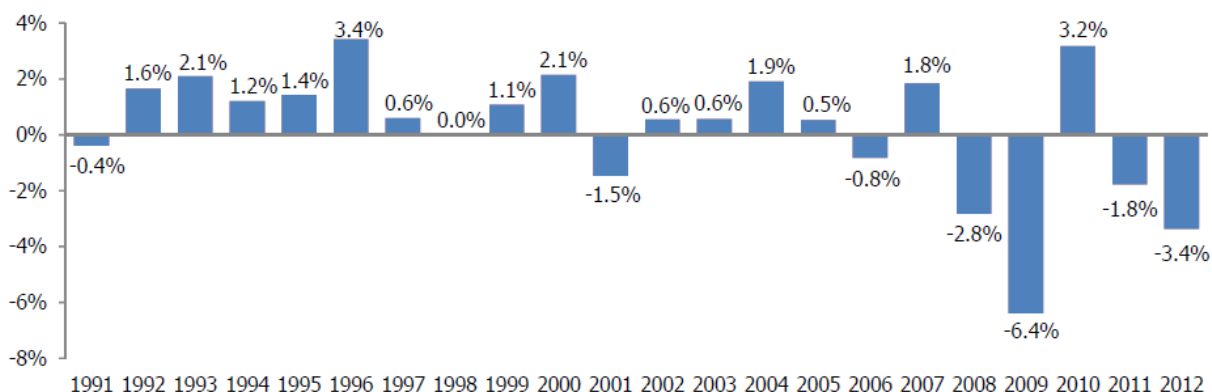


Figure ES-3: Annual Greenhouse Gas Emissions Relative to 1990 (1990=0)

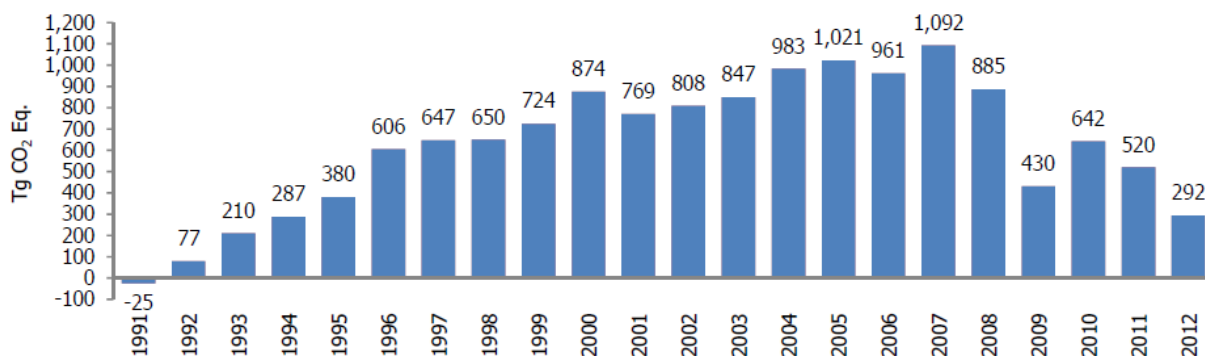


Table ES-2: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	5,108.7	6,112.2	5,936.9	5,506.1	5,722.3	5,592.2	5,383.2
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7
Transportation	1,494.0	1,891.7	1,816.5	1,747.7	1,765.0	1,747.9	1,739.5
Industrial	845.1	827.6	804.1	727.5	775.6	768.7	774.2
Residential	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9
Commercial	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4
U.S. Territories	27.9	50.0	41.0	43.8	49.6	49.6	49.6
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	120.8	141.0	128.0	108.1	120.8	117.3	110.3
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99.8	66.7	66.8	43.0	55.7	60.0	54.3
Natural Gas Systems	37.7	30.0	32.7	32.2	32.4	35.1	35.2
Cement Production	33.3	45.9	41.2	29.4	31.3	32.0	35.1
Lime Production	11.4	14.0	14.0	10.9	12.8	13.5	13.3
Incineration of Waste	8.0	12.5	11.9	11.7	12.0	12.1	12.2
Ammonia Production	13.0	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.2	9.4	9.4
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	4.9	6.3	5.9	7.6	9.6	9.3	8.0
Cropland Remaining Cropland	7.1	7.9	8.6	7.2	8.6	7.9	7.4

Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.0	5.2
Petrochemical Production	3.4	4.3	3.6	2.8	3.5	3.5	3.5
Aluminum Production	6.8	4.1	4.5	3.0	2.7	3.3	3.4
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
Zinc Production	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.4
Glass Production	1.5	1.9	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.2
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Petroleum Systems	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
<i>Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sink)^a</i>	<i>(831.1)</i>	<i>(1,030.7)</i>	<i>(981.0)</i>	<i>(961.6)</i>	<i>(968.0)</i>	<i>(980.3)</i>	<i>(979.3)</i>
<i>Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption^b</i>	<i>219.4</i>	<i>229.8</i>	<i>254.7</i>	<i>250.5</i>	<i>265.1</i>	<i>268.1</i>	<i>266.8</i>
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>103.5</i>	<i>113.1</i>	<i>114.3</i>	<i>106.4</i>	<i>117.0</i>	<i>111.7</i>	<i>105.8</i>
CH₄	635.7	585.7	606.0	596.5	585.5	578.3	567.3
Enteric Fermentation	137.9	142.5	147.0	146.1	144.9	143.0	141.0
Natural Gas Systems	156.4	152.0	151.6	142.9	134.7	133.2	129.9
Landfills	147.8	112.1	114.3	115.3	109.9	107.4	102.8
Coal Mining	81.1	53.6	63.5	67.1	69.2	59.8	55.8
Manure Management	31.5	47.6	51.5	50.5	51.8	52.0	52.9
Petroleum Systems	35.8	28.8	28.8	29.1	29.5	30.5	31.7
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	2.5	8.1	8.7	5.8	4.7	14.0	15.3
Wastewater Treatment	13.2	13.3	13.3	13.1	13.0	12.8	12.8
Rice Cultivation	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.9	9.3	7.1	7.4
Stationary Combustion	7.5	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.4	6.3	5.7
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.7
Petrochemical Production	2.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.1
Mobile Combustion	4.6	2.4	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
Composting	0.3	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Ferroalloy Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>
N₂O	398.6	415.8	423.3	412.2	409.3	417.2	410.1
Agricultural Soil Management	282.1	297.3	319.0	316.4	310.1	307.8	306.6
Stationary Combustion	12.3	20.6	21.1	20.8	22.5	21.6	22.0
Manure Management	14.4	17.1	17.8	17.7	17.8	18.0	18.0
Mobile Combustion	44.0	36.9	25.5	22.7	20.7	18.5	16.5
Nitric Acid Production	18.2	16.9	16.9	14.0	16.7	15.8	15.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	2.1	7.0	7.5	5.1	4.2	11.8	12.8

Adipic Acid Production	15.8	7.4	2.6	2.8	4.4	10.6	5.8
Wastewater Treatment	3.5	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
N ₂ O from Product Uses	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Composting	0.4	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8
Settlements Remaining							
Settlements	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wetlands Remaining							
Wetlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.0</i>
HFCs	36.9	119.8	136.0	135.1	144.0	148.6	151.2
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^d	0.3	103.8	122.2	129.6	137.5	141.5	146.8
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	15.8	13.6	5.4	6.4	6.9	4.3
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
PFCs	20.6	5.6	5.1	3.3	3.8	6.0	5.4
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.2	2.6	2.4	1.7	2.2	3.0	2.9
Aluminum Production	18.4	3.0	2.7	1.6	1.6	2.9	2.5
SF₆	32.6	14.7	10.7	9.6	9.8	10.8	8.4
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	26.7	11.0	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.0
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	2.9	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.9	1.7
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.7
Total	6,233.2	7,253.8	7,118.1	6,662.9	6,874.7	6,753.0	6,525.6
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,402.1	6,223.1	6,137.1	5,701.2	5,906.7	5,772.7	5,546.3

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration. The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a net sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total.

^b Emissions from Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption are not included specifically in summing energy sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry.

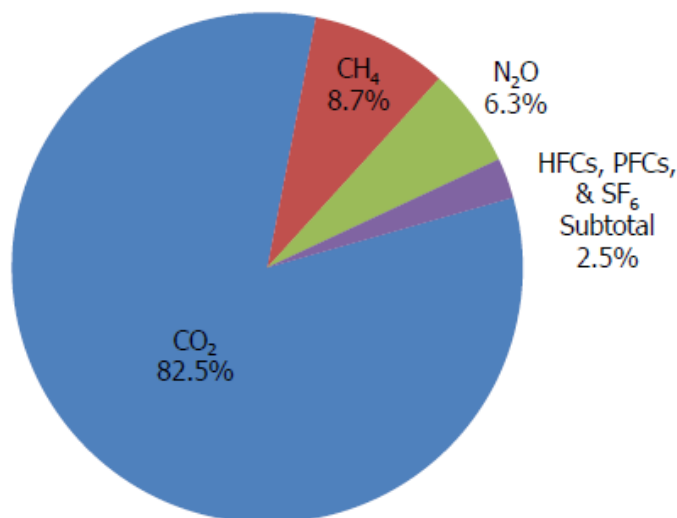
^c Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

^d Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Figure ES-4 illustrates the relative contribution of the direct greenhouse gases to total U.S. emissions in 2012. The primary greenhouse gas emitted by human activities in the United States was CO₂, representing approximately 82.5 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions. The largest source of CO₂, and of overall greenhouse gas emissions, was fossil fuel combustion. CH₄ emissions, which have decreased by 10.8 percent since 1990, resulted primarily from enteric fermentation associated with domestic livestock, natural gas systems, and decomposition of wastes in landfills. Agricultural soil management, manure management, mobile source fuel combustion and stationary fuel combustion were the major sources of N₂O emissions. Ozone depleting substance substitute emissions and emissions of HFC-23 during the production of HCFC-22 were the primary contributors to aggregate HFC emissions. PFC emissions resulted as a by-product of primary aluminum production and from semiconductor manufacturing, while electrical transmission and distribution systems accounted for most SF₆ emissions.

Figure ES-4: 2012 Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas (Percentages based on Tg CO₂ Eq.)



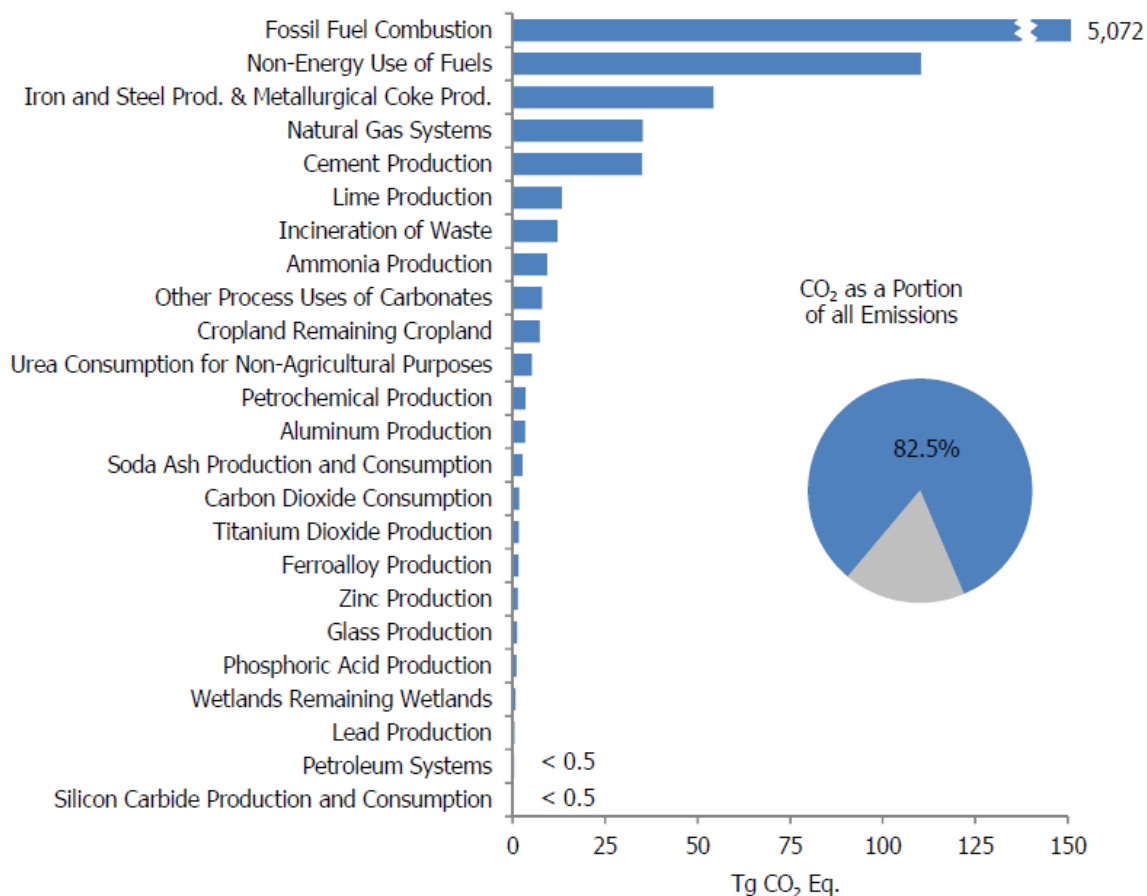
Overall, from 1990 to 2012, total emissions of CO₂ increased by 274.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5.4 percent), while total emissions of CH₄ decreased by 68.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (10.8 percent), and N₂O increased by 11.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.9 percent). During the same period, aggregate weighted emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ rose by 74.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (83.0 percent). From 1990 to 2012, HFCs increased by 114.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (309.6 percent), PFCs decreased by 15.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (73.8 percent), and SF₆ decreased by 24.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (74.3 percent). Despite being emitted in smaller quantities relative to the other principal greenhouse gases, emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are significant because many of these gases have extremely high global warming potentials and, in the cases of PFCs and SF₆, long atmospheric lifetimes. Conversely, U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were partly offset by carbon sequestration in forests, trees in urban areas, agricultural soils, and landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps, which, in aggregate, offset 15.0 percent of total emissions in 2012. The following sections describe each gas's contribution to total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in more detail.

Carbon Dioxide Emissions

The global carbon cycle is made up of large carbon flows and reservoirs. Billions of tons of carbon in the form of CO₂ are absorbed by oceans and living biomass (i.e., sinks) and are emitted to the atmosphere annually through natural processes (i.e., sources). When in equilibrium, carbon fluxes among these various reservoirs are roughly balanced. Since the Industrial Revolution (i.e., about 1750), global atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ have risen approximately 40 percent (IPCC 2007 and NOAA/ESLR 2013), principally due to the combustion of fossil fuels. Within the United States, fossil fuel combustion accounted for 94.2 percent of CO₂ emissions in 2012. Globally, approximately 32,579 Tg of CO₂ were added to the atmosphere through the combustion of fossil fuels in 2011, of which the United States accounted for about 17 percent.¹³ Changes in land use and forestry practices can also emit CO₂ (e.g., through conversion of forest land to agricultural or urban use) or can act as a sink for CO₂ (e.g., through net additions to forest biomass). In addition to fossil fuel combustion, several other sources emit significant quantities of CO₂. These sources include, but are not limited to non-energy use of fuels, iron and steel production and cement production (Figure ES-5).

¹³ Global CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion were taken from Energy Information Administration *International Energy Statistics 2011* < <http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/cfapps/ipdbproject/IEDIndex3.cfm> > EIA (2014).

Figure ES-5: 2012 Sources of CO₂ Emissions



Note: Electricity generation also includes emissions of less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. from geothermal-based generation.

As the largest source of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions, CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion has accounted for approximately 78 percent of GWP-weighted emissions since 1990, and is approximately 78 percent of total GWP-weighted emissions in 2012. Emissions of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion increased at an average annual rate of 0.3 percent from 1990 to 2012. The fundamental factors influencing this trend include (1) a generally growing domestic economy over the last 23 years, (2) an overall growth in emissions from electricity generation and transportation activities, along with (3) a general decline in the carbon intensity of fuels combusted for energy in recent years by most sectors of the economy. Between 1990 and 2012, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion increased from 4,745.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. to 5,072.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.—a 6.9 percent total increase over the twenty-three-year period. From 2011 to 2012, these emissions decreased by 198.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3.8 percent).

Historically, changes in emissions from fossil fuel combustion have been the dominant factor affecting U.S. emission trends. Changes in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are influenced by many long-term and short-term factors, including population and economic growth, energy price fluctuations, technological changes, energy fuel choices, and seasonal temperatures. In the short term, the overall consumption of fossil fuels in the United States fluctuates primarily in response to changes in general economic conditions, energy prices, weather, and the availability of non-fossil alternatives. For example, in a year with increased consumption of goods and services, low fuel prices, severe summer and winter weather conditions, nuclear plant closures, and lower precipitation feeding hydroelectric dams, there would likely be proportionally greater fossil fuel consumption than a year with poor economic performance, high fuel prices, mild temperatures, and increased output from nuclear and hydroelectric plants. In the long term, energy consumption patterns respond to changes that affect the scale of consumption (e.g., population, number of cars, and size of houses), the efficiency with which energy is used in

equipment (e.g., cars, power plants, steel mills, and light bulbs) and behavioral choices (e.g., walking, bicycling, or telecommuting to work instead of driving).

Figure ES-6: 2012 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type

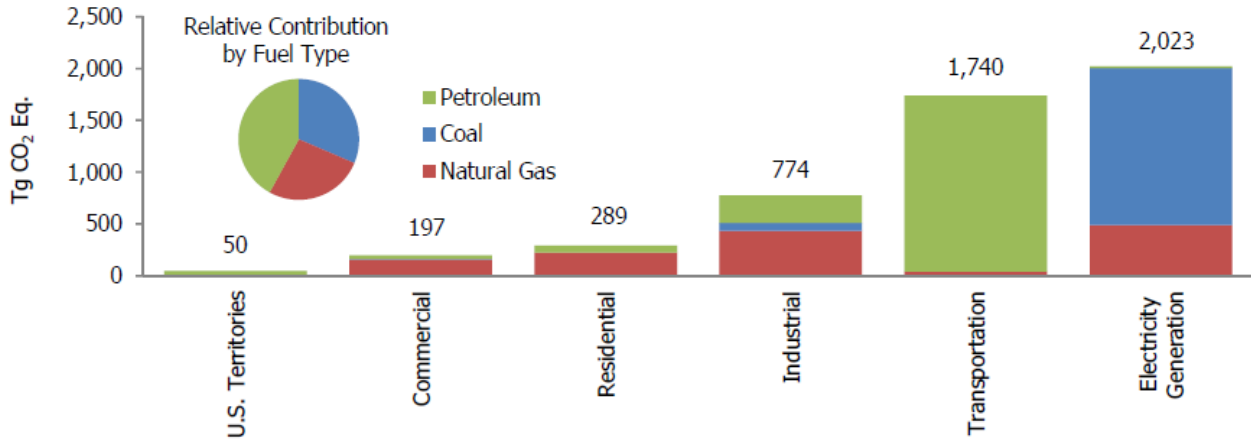
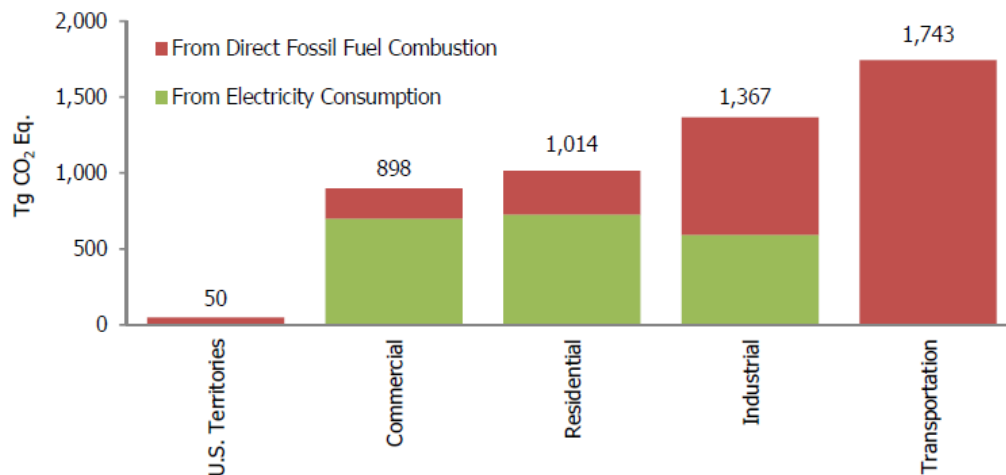


Figure ES-7: 2012 End-Use Sector Emissions of CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion



The five major fuel consuming sectors contributing to CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are electricity generation, transportation, industrial, residential, and commercial. CO₂ emissions are produced by the electricity generation sector as they consume fossil fuel to provide electricity to one of the other four sectors, or “end-use” sectors. For the discussion below, electricity generation emissions have been distributed to each end-use sector on the basis of each sector’s share of aggregate electricity consumption. This method of distributing emissions assumes that each end-use sector consumes electricity that is generated from the national average mix of fuels according to their carbon intensity. Emissions from electricity generation are also addressed separately after the end-use sectors have been discussed.

Note that emissions from U.S. territories are calculated separately due to a lack of specific consumption data for the individual end-use sectors. Figure ES-6, Figure ES-7, and Table ES-3 summarize CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by end-use sector.

Table ES-3: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Consuming End-Use Sector (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Transportation	1,497.0	1,896.5	1,821.2	1,752.2	1,769.5	1,752.1	1,743.4
Combustion	1,494.0	1,891.7	1,816.5	1,747.7	1,765.0	1,747.9	1,739.5
Electricity	3.0	4.7	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.3	3.9
Industrial	1,531.8	1,564.6	1,501.4	1,329.5	1,416.6	1,393.6	1,367.1
Combustion	845.1	827.6	804.1	727.5	775.6	768.7	774.2
Electricity	686.7	737.0	697.3	602.0	641.1	624.9	592.9
Residential	931.4	1,214.7	1,189.2	1,122.9	1,175.2	1,115.9	1,014.3
Combustion	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9
Electricity	593.0	856.7	842.9	786.5	840.4	791.0	725.5
Commercial	757.0	1,027.2	1,040.8	977.4	993.9	959.8	897.9
Combustion	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4
Electricity	538.0	803.7	816.0	753.5	773.3	738.3	700.4
U.S. Territories^a	27.9	50.0	41.0	43.8	49.6	49.6	49.6
Total	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Combustion-related emissions from electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate national electricity consumption by each end-use sector.

^a Fuel consumption by U.S. territories (i.e., American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands) is included in this report.

Transportation End-Use Sector. When electricity-related emissions are distributed to economic end-use sectors, transportation activities accounted for 34.4 percent of U.S. CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2012. The largest sources of transportation greenhouse gases in 2012 were passenger cars (43.1 percent); light duty trucks, which include sport utility vehicles, pickup trucks, and minivans (18.4 percent), freight trucks (21.9 percent), commercial aircraft (6.2 percent), rail (2.5 percent), and ships and boats (2.2 percent). These figures include direct emissions from fossil fuel combustion used in transportation and emissions from non-energy use (i.e. lubricants) used in transportation, as well as HFC emissions from mobile air conditioners and refrigerated transport allocated to these vehicle types.

In terms of the overall trend, from 1990 to 2012, total transportation emissions rose by 18 percent due, in large part, to increased demand for travel with limited gains in fuel efficiency over the same time period. The number of vehicle miles traveled by light-duty motor vehicles (passenger cars and light-duty trucks) increased 35 percent from 1990 to 2012, as a result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, urban sprawl, and low fuel prices during the beginning of this period. Almost all of the energy consumed for transportation was supplied by petroleum-based products, with more than half being related to gasoline consumption in automobiles and other highway vehicles. Other fuel uses, especially diesel fuel for freight trucks and jet fuel for aircraft, accounted for the remainder. The primary driver of transportation-related emissions was CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, which increased by 16 percent from 1990 to 2012. This rise in CO₂ emissions, combined with an increase in HFCs from close to zero emissions in 1990 to 72.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, led to an increase in overall emissions from transportation activities of 18 percent.

Industrial End-Use Sector. Industrial CO₂ emissions, resulting both directly from the combustion of fossil fuels and indirectly from the generation of electricity that is consumed by industry, accounted for 27 percent of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion in 2012. Approximately 57 percent of these emissions resulted from direct fossil fuel combustion to produce steam and/or heat for industrial processes. The remaining emissions resulted from consuming electricity for motors, electric furnaces, ovens, lighting, and other applications. In contrast to the other end-use sectors, emissions from industry have steadily declined since 1990. This decline is due to structural changes in the U.S. economy (i.e., shifts from a manufacturing-based to a service-based economy), fuel switching, and efficiency improvements.

Residential and Commercial End-Use Sectors. The residential and commercial end-use sectors accounted for 20 and 18 percent, respectively, of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2012. Both sectors relied heavily on electricity for meeting energy demands, with 72 and 78 percent, respectively, of their emissions attributable to electricity consumption for lighting, heating, cooling, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were due to the consumption of natural gas and petroleum for heating and cooking. Emissions from the residential and commercial end-use sectors have increased by 9 percent and 19 percent since 1990, respectively, due to increasing electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances.

Electricity Generation. The United States relies on electricity to meet a significant portion of its energy demands. Electricity generators consumed 35 percent of total U.S. energy uses from fossil fuels and emitted 40 percent of the CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion in 2012. The type of fuel combusted by electricity generators has a significant effect on their emissions. For example, some electricity is generated through non-fossil fuel options such as nuclear, hydroelectric, or geothermal energy. Including all electricity generation modes, generators relied on coal for approximately 39 percent their total energy requirements in 2012.¹⁴ In addition, the coal used by electricity generators accounted for 93 percent of all coal consumed for energy in the United States in 2012.¹⁵ Recently a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels consumed to generate electricity has occurred due to a decrease in coal consumption, and increased natural gas consumption and other generation sources. Including all electricity generation modes, electricity generators used natural gas for approximately 29 percent of their total energy requirements in 2012. Across the time series, changes in electricity demand and the carbon intensity of fuels used for electricity generation have a significant impact on CO₂ emissions.

Other significant CO₂ trends included the following:

- CO₂ emissions from non-energy use of fossil fuels have decreased by 10.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (8.7 percent) from 1990 through 2012. Emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels were 110.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, which constituted 2.0 percent of total national CO₂ emissions, approximately the same proportion as in 1990.
- CO₂ emissions from iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production decreased by 5.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (9.5 percent) from 2011 to 2012, reversing a two-year trend of increasing emissions primarily due to increased steel production associated with improved economic conditions. Despite this, from 1990 through 2012, emissions declined by 45.6 percent (45.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.). This overall decline is due to the restructuring of the industry, technological improvements, and increased scrap utilization.
- In 2012, CO₂ emissions from cement production increased by 3.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (9.5 percent) from 2011. After decreasing in 1991 by 2.2 percent from 1990 levels, cement production emissions grew every year through 2006 except for a slight decrease in 1997. Since 2006, emissions have fluctuated through 2012 to the economic recession and associated decrease in demand for construction materials. Overall, from 1990 to 2012, emissions from cement production have increased by 5.3 percent, an increase of 1.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.
- Net CO₂ uptake from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry increased by 148.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (17.8 percent) from 1990 through 2012. This increase was primarily due to an increase in the rate of net carbon accumulation in forest carbon stocks, particularly in aboveground and belowground tree biomass, and harvested wood pools. Annual carbon accumulation in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps slowed over this period, while the rate of carbon accumulation in urban trees increased.

Box ES- 2: Use of ambient measurements systems for validation of emission inventories

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emission inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in this report are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the IPCC.¹⁶ Several recent studies have measured emissions at the national or regional level (e.g., Petron 2012, Miller et al. 2013) with results that differ from EPA's estimate of emissions. A recent study (Brandt et al. 2014) reviewed technical literature on methane emissions and estimated methane emissions from all anthropogenic sources (e.g., livestock, oil and gas, waste emissions) to be

¹⁴ See Table 7.2b Electric Power Sector of EIA 2013.

¹⁵ See Table 6.2 Coal Consumption by Sector of EIA 2013.

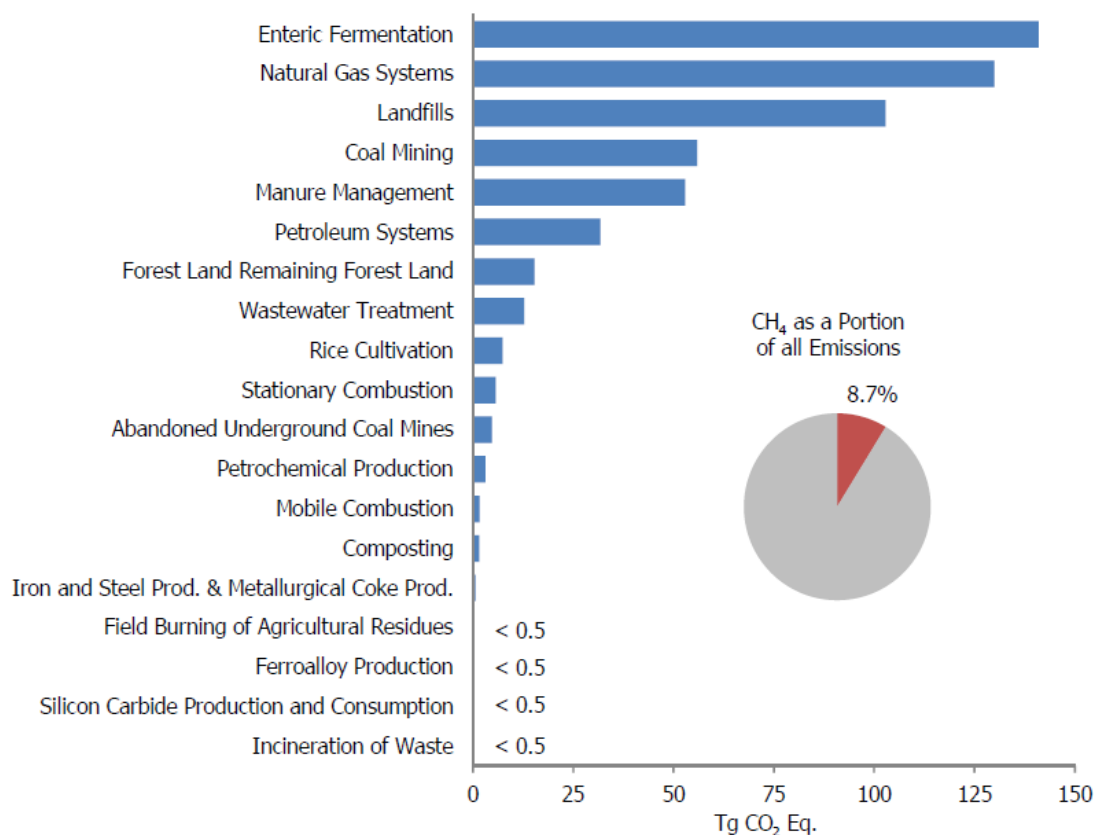
¹⁶ See < <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/index.html>>.

greater than EPA’s estimate. EPA has engaged with researchers on how remote sensing, ambient measurement, and inverse modeling techniques for greenhouse gas emissions could assist in improving the understanding of inventory estimates. An area of particular interest in EPA’s outreach efforts is how these data can be used in a manner consistent with this Inventory report’s transparency on its calculation methodologies, and the ability of these techniques to attribute emissions and removals from remote sensing to anthropogenic sources, as defined by the IPCC for this report, versus natural sources and sinks. In working with the research community on ambient measurement and remote sensing techniques to improve national greenhouse gas inventories, EPA relies upon guidance from the IPCC on the use of measurements and modeling to validate emission inventories.¹⁷

Methane Emissions

Methane (CH₄) is more than 20 times as effective as CO₂ at trapping heat in the atmosphere (IPCC 1996). Over the last two hundred and fifty years, the concentration of CH₄ in the atmosphere increased by 151 percent (IPCC 2007). Anthropogenic sources of CH₄ include natural gas and petroleum systems, agricultural activities, landfills, coal mining, wastewater treatment, stationary and mobile combustion, and certain industrial processes (see Figure ES-8).

Figure ES-8: 2012 Sources of CH₄ Emissions



Some significant trends in U.S. emissions of CH₄ include the following:

- Enteric fermentation is the largest anthropogenic source of CH₄ emissions in the United States. In 2012, enteric fermentation CH₄ emissions were 141.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (24.9 percent of total CH₄ emissions), which

¹⁷ See < http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1003_Uncertainty%20meeting_report.pdf >.

represents an increase of 3.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.3 percent) since 1990. This increase in emissions from 1990 to 2012 in enteric generally follows the increasing trends in cattle populations. From 1990 to 1995 emissions increased and then decreased from 1996 to 2001, mainly due to fluctuations in beef cattle populations and increased digestibility of feed for feedlot cattle. Emissions generally increased from 2005 to 2007, though with a slight decrease in 2004, as both dairy and beef populations underwent increases and the literature for dairy cow diets indicated a trend toward a decrease in feed digestibility for those years. Emissions decreased again from 2008 to 2012 as beef cattle populations again decreased.

- Natural gas systems were the second largest anthropogenic source category of CH₄ emissions in the United States in 2012 with 129.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. of CH₄ emitted into the atmosphere. Those emissions have decreased by 26.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (17.0 percent) since 1990. The decrease in CH₄ emissions is largely due to the decrease in emissions from production and distribution. The decrease in production emissions is due to increased voluntary reductions, from activities such as replacing high bleed pneumatic devices, and the increased use of plunger lifts for liquids unloading, and increased regulatory reductions. The decrease in distribution emissions is due to a decrease in cast iron and unprotected steel pipelines. Emissions from field production accounted for 32.2 percent of CH₄ emissions from natural gas systems in 2012. CH₄ emissions from field production decreased by 25.2 percent from 1990 through 2012; however, the trend was not stable over the time series—emissions from this source increased by 23.4 percent from 1990 through 2006 due primarily to increases in hydraulically fractured well completions and workovers, and then declined by 39.4 percent from 2006 to 2012. Reasons for the 2006-2012 trend include an increase in plunger lift use for liquids unloading, increased voluntary reductions over that time period (including those associated with pneumatic devices), and Reduced Emissions Completions (RECs) use for well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing.
- Landfills are the third largest anthropogenic source of CH₄ emissions in the United States (102.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.), accounting for 18.1 percent of total CH₄ emissions in 2012. From 1990 to 2012, CH₄ emissions from landfills decreased by 44.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (30.4 percent), with small increases occurring in some interim years. This downward trend in overall emissions can be attributed to a 21 percent reduction in the amount of decomposable materials (i.e., paper and paperboard, food scraps, and yard trimmings) discarded in MSW landfills over the time series (EPA 2010) and an increase in the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted,¹⁸ which has more than offset the additional CH₄ emissions resulting from an increase in the amount of municipal solid waste landfilled.
- In 2012, CH₄ emissions from coal mining were 55.8 Tg CO₂ Eq., a 4.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.7 percent) decrease below 2011 emission levels. The overall decline of 25.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (31.1 percent) from 1990 results from the mining of less gassy coal from underground mines and the increased use of CH₄ collected from degasification systems.
- Methane emissions from manure management increased by 68.0 percent since 1990, from 31.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 52.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012. The majority of this increase was from swine and dairy cow manure, since the general trend in manure management is one of increasing use of liquid systems, which tends to produce greater CH₄ emissions. The increase in liquid systems is the combined result of a shift to larger facilities, and to facilities in the West and Southwest, all of which tend to use liquid systems. Also, new regulations limiting the application of manure nutrients have shifted manure management practices at smaller dairies from daily spread to manure managed and stored on site.

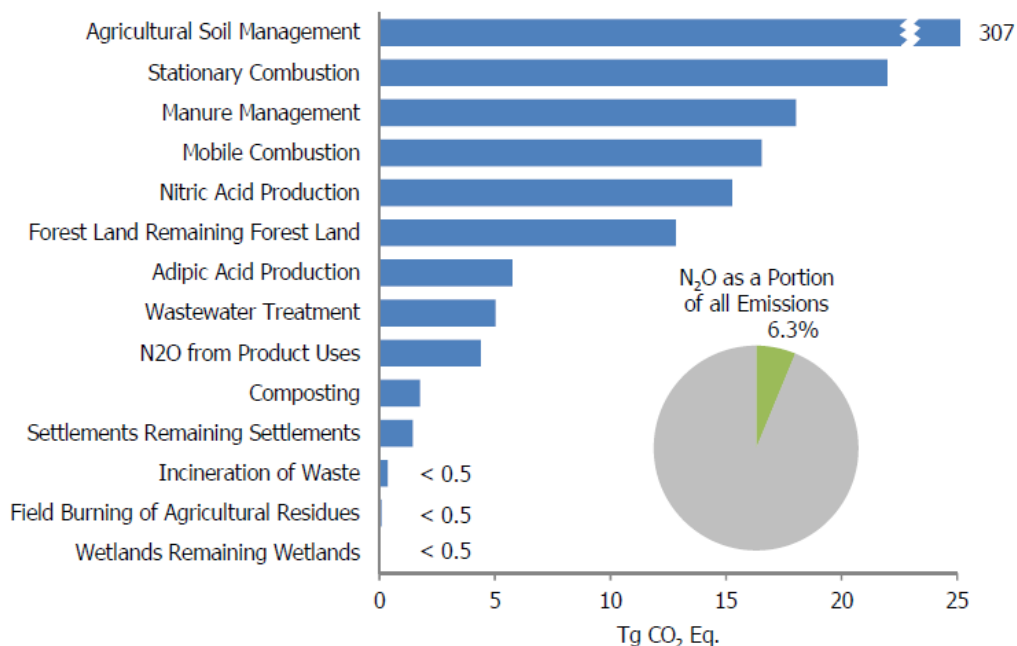
Nitrous Oxide Emissions

N₂O is produced by biological processes that occur in soil and water and by a variety of anthropogenic activities in the agricultural, energy-related, industrial, and waste management fields. While total N₂O emissions are much lower than CO₂ emissions, N₂O is approximately 300 times more powerful than CO₂ at trapping heat in the atmosphere (IPCC 1996). Since 1750, the global atmospheric concentration of N₂O has risen by approximately 20 percent (IPCC 2007). The main anthropogenic activities producing N₂O in the United States are agricultural soil

¹⁸ Carbon dioxide emissions from landfills are not included specifically in summing waste sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry.

management, stationary fuel combustion, fuel combustion in motor vehicles, manure management and nitric acid production (see Figure ES-9).

Figure ES-9: 2012 Sources of N₂O Emissions



Some significant trends in U.S. emissions of N₂O include the following:

- Agricultural soils accounted for approximately 74.8 percent of N₂O emissions and 4.7 percent of total emissions in the United States in 2012. Estimated emissions from this source in 2012 were 306.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. Annual N₂O emissions from agricultural soils fluctuated between 1990 and 2012, largely as a reflection of annual variation in weather patterns, synthetic fertilizer use, and crop production, although overall emissions were 8.7 percent higher in 2012 than in 1990. Annual N₂O emissions from agricultural soils fluctuated between 1990 and 2012.
- N₂O emissions from stationary combustion increased 9.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (79.3 percent) from 1990 through 2012. N₂O emissions from this source increased primarily as a result of an increase in the number of coal fluidized bed boilers in the electric power sector.
- In 2012, total N₂O emissions from manure management were estimated to be 18.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (58 Gg); in 1990, emissions were 14.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (46 Gg). These values include both direct and indirect N₂O emissions from manure management. Nitrous oxide emissions have remained fairly steady since 1990. Small changes in N₂O emissions from individual animal groups exhibit the same trends as the animal group populations, with the overall net effect that N₂O emissions showed a 25 percent increase from 1990 to 2012 and a 0.1 percent increase from 2011 through 2012. Overall shifts toward liquid systems have driven down the emissions per unit of nitrogen excreted.
- In 2012, N₂O emissions from mobile combustion were 16.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.0 percent of N₂O emissions). From 1990 to 2012, N₂O emissions from mobile combustion decreased by 62.4 percent. However, from 1990 to 1998 emissions increased 25.6 percent, due to control technologies that reduced NO_x emissions while increasing N₂O emissions. Since 1998, newer control technologies have led to an overall decline of 38.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (70.1 percent) in N₂O from this source.
- N₂O emissions from adipic acid production were 5.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, and have decreased significantly in recent years due to the widespread installation of pollution control measures. Emissions from adipic acid production have decreased by 63.6 percent since 1990 and by 67.2 percent since a peak in 1995.

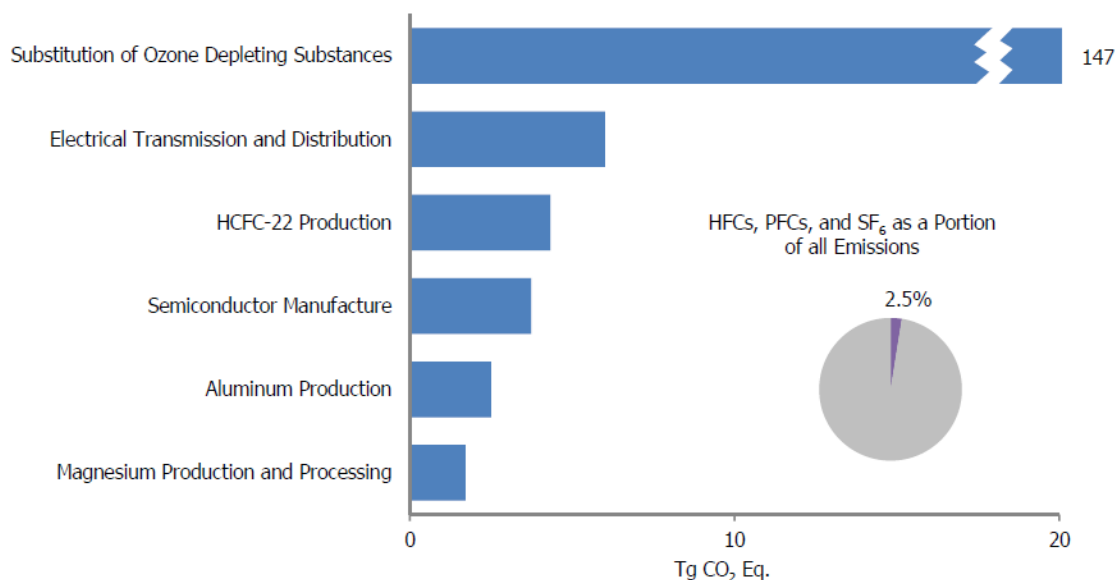
HFC, PFC, and SF₆ Emissions

HFCs and PFCs are families of synthetic chemicals that are used as alternatives to Ozone Depleting Substances, which are being phased out under the Montreal Protocol and Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990. HFCs and PFCs do not deplete the stratospheric ozone layer, and are therefore acceptable alternatives under the Montreal Protocol.

These compounds, however, along with SF₆, are potent greenhouse gases. In addition to having high global warming potentials, SF₆ and PFCs have extremely long atmospheric lifetimes, resulting in their essentially irreversible accumulation in the atmosphere once emitted. Sulfur hexafluoride is the most potent greenhouse gas the IPCC has evaluated (IPCC 1996).

Other emissive sources of these gases include HCFC-22 production, electrical transmission and distribution systems, semiconductor manufacturing, aluminum production, and magnesium production and processing (see Figure ES-10).

Figure ES-10: 2012 Sources of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ Emissions



Some significant trends in U.S. HFC, PFC, and SF₆ emissions include the following:

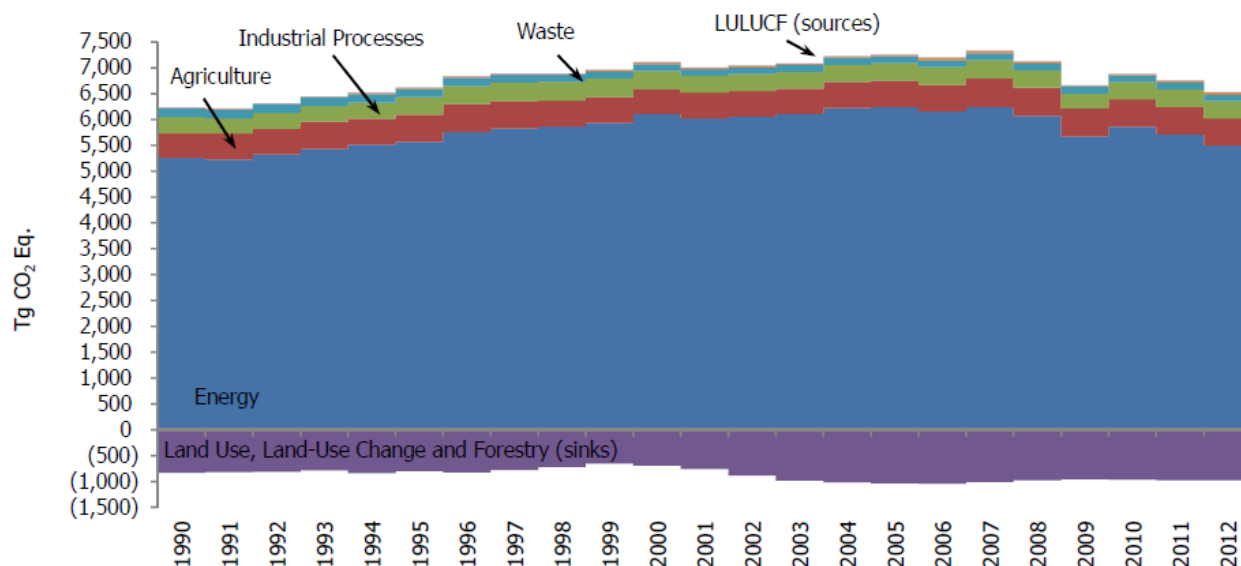
- Emissions resulting from the substitution of ozone depleting substances (ODS) (e.g., CFCs) have been consistently increasing, from small amounts in 1990 to 146.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012. Emissions from ODS substitutes are both the largest and the fastest growing source of HFC, PFC, and SF₆ emissions. These emissions have been increasing as phase-out of ODS required under the Montreal Protocol came into effect, especially after 1994, when full market penetration was made for the first generation of new technologies featuring ODS substitutes.
- GWP-weighted PFC, HFC, and SF₆ emissions from semiconductor manufacture have increased by 28 percent from 1990 to 2012, due to the rapid growth of this industry and the increasing complexity of semiconductor products (more complex devices have a larger number of layers that require additional F-GHG using process steps). Within that time span, emissions peaked in 1999, the initial year of the EPA's PFC Reduction / Climate Partnership for the Semiconductor Industry, but have since declined to 3.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012 (a 48 percent decrease relative to 1999).

- SF₆ emissions from electric power transmission and distribution systems decreased by 77.5 percent (20.7 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2012, primarily because of higher purchase prices for SF₆ and efforts by industry to reduce emissions.
- PFC emissions from aluminum production decreased by 86.4 percent (15.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2012, due to both industry emission reduction efforts and declines in domestic aluminum production.

ES.3. Overview of Sector Emissions and Trends

In accordance with the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), and the 2003 UNFCCC Guidelines on Reporting and Review (UNFCCC 2003), Figure ES-11 and Table ES-4 aggregate emissions and sinks by these chapters. Emissions of all gases can be summed from each source category from IPCC guidance. Over the twenty-three-year period of 1990 to 2012, total emissions in the Energy, Industrial Processes, and Agriculture sectors grew by 238.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.5 percent), 18.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5.8 percent), and 52.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (11.0 percent), respectively. Emissions from the Waste and Solvent and Other Product Use sectors decreased by 41.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (24.9 percent) and less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.4 percent), respectively. Over the same period, estimates of net C sequestration in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (LULUCF) sector (magnitude of emissions plus CO₂ flux from all LULUCF source categories) increased by 124.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (15.2 percent).

Figure ES-11: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector



Note: Relatively smaller amounts of GWP-weighted emissions are also emitted from the Solvent and Other Product Use sectors

Note: Relatively smaller amounts of GWP-weighted emissions are also emitted from the Solvent and Other Product Use sectors.

Table ES-4: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Chapter/IPCC Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Energy	5,260.1	6,243.5	6,071.1	5,674.6	5,860.6	5,712.9	5,498.9

Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3
Natural Gas Systems	194.2	182.0	184.3	175.2	167.0	168.3	165.1
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	120.8	141.0	128.0	108.1	120.8	117.3	110.3
Coal Mining	81.1	53.6	63.5	67.1	69.2	59.8	55.8
Petroleum Systems	36.2	29.1	29.1	29.5	29.9	30.9	32.1
Stationary Combustion	19.7	27.2	27.8	27.4	28.9	28.0	27.7
Mobile Combustion	48.6	39.3	27.4	24.5	22.5	20.2	18.2
Incineration of Waste	8.4	12.9	12.2	12.0	12.4	12.5	12.6
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.7
Industrial Processes	316.1	334.9	335.9	287.8	324.6	342.9	334.4
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	0.3	103.8	122.2	129.6	137.5	141.5	146.8
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	100.7	67.4	67.5	43.4	56.3	60.6	54.9
Cement Production	33.3	45.9	41.2	29.4	31.3	32.0	35.1
Nitric Acid Production	18.2	16.9	16.9	14.0	16.7	15.8	15.3
Lime Production	11.4	14.0	14.0	10.9	12.8	13.5	13.3
Ammonia Production	13.0	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.2	9.4	9.4
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	4.9	6.3	5.9	7.6	9.6	9.3	8.0
Petrochemical Production	5.7	7.5	6.5	5.7	6.5	6.6	6.6
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	26.7	11.0	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.0
Aluminum Production	25.3	7.1	7.2	4.6	4.3	6.2	5.9
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	7.4	2.6	2.8	4.4	10.6	5.8
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.0	5.2
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	15.8	13.6	5.4	6.4	6.9	4.3
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.9	3.5	3.0	2.2	2.8	3.9	3.7
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	2.9	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.9	1.7
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
Zinc Production	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.4
Glass Production	1.5	1.9	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.2
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Solvent and Other Product Use	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Agriculture	473.9	512.2	543.4	538.9	534.2	528.3	526.3
Agricultural Soil Management	282.1	297.3	319.0	316.4	310.1	307.8	306.6
Enteric Fermentation	137.9	142.5	147.0	146.1	144.9	143.0	141.0
Manure Management	45.8	64.6	69.3	68.2	69.6	70.0	70.9
Rice Cultivation	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.9	9.3	7.1	7.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Emissions)	13.7	25.5	27.3	20.5	20.0	36.0	37.8
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	4.6	15.1	16.2	10.8	8.9	25.7	28.1
Cropland Remaining Cropland	7.1	7.9	8.6	7.2	8.6	7.9	7.4
Settlements Remaining Settlements	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
Waste	165.0	133.2	136.0	136.5	131.1	128.5	124.0
Landfills	147.8	112.1	114.3	115.3	109.9	107.4	102.8
Wastewater Treatment	16.6	17.8	18.1	17.9	17.9	17.8	17.8
Composting	0.7	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.3
Total Emissions	6,233.2	7,253.8	7,118.1	6,662.9	6,874.7	6,753.0	6,525.6
Net CO ₂ Flux From Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry (Sinks)*	(831.1)	(1,030.7)	(981.0)	(961.6)	(968.0)	(980.3)	(979.3)

Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,402.1	6,223.1	6,137.1	5,701.2	5,906.7	5,772.7	5,546.3
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* The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Please refer to Table ES-5 for a breakout by source.

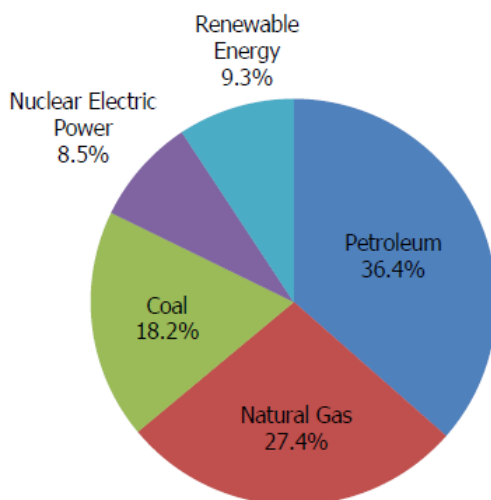
Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

Energy

The Energy chapter contains emissions of all greenhouse gases resulting from stationary and mobile energy activities including fuel combustion and fugitive fuel emissions. Energy-related activities, primarily fossil fuel combustion, accounted for the vast majority of U.S. CO₂ emissions for the period of 1990 through 2012. In 2012, approximately 82 percent of the energy consumed in the United States (on a Btu basis) was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels. The remaining 18 percent came from other energy sources such as hydropower, biomass, nuclear, wind, and solar energy (see Figure ES-12). Energy-related activities are also responsible for CH₄ and N₂O emissions (40 percent and 9 percent of total U.S. emissions of each gas, respectively). Overall, emission sources in the Energy chapter account for a combined 84.3 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012.

Figure ES-12: 2012 U.S. Energy Consumption by Energy Source



Industrial Processes

The Industrial Processes chapter contains by-product or fugitive emissions of greenhouse gases from industrial processes not directly related to energy activities such as fossil fuel combustion. For example, industrial processes can chemically transform raw materials, which often release waste gases such as CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O. These processes include iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production, cement production, ammonia production and urea consumption, lime production, other process uses of carbonates (e.g., flux stone, flue gas desulfurization, and glass manufacturing), soda ash production and consumption, titanium dioxide production, phosphoric acid production, ferroalloy production, glass production, CO₂ consumption, silicon carbide production and consumption, aluminum production, petrochemical production, nitric acid production, adipic acid production, lead production, and zinc production. Additionally, emissions from industrial processes release HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆. Overall, emission sources in the Industrial Process chapter account for 5.1 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012.

Solvent and Other Product Use

The Solvent and Other Product Use chapter contains greenhouse gas emissions that are produced as a by-product of various solvent and other product uses. In the United States, emissions from N₂O from product uses, the only source of greenhouse gas emissions from this sector, accounted for less than 0.1 percent of total U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions on a carbon equivalent basis in 2012.

Agriculture

The Agricultural chapter contains anthropogenic emissions from agricultural activities (except fuel combustion, which is addressed in the Energy chapter, and agricultural CO₂ fluxes, which are addressed in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter). Agricultural activities contribute directly to emissions of greenhouse gases through a variety of processes, including the following source categories: enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, rice cultivation, agricultural soil management, and field burning of agricultural residues. CH₄ and N₂O were the primary greenhouse gases emitted by agricultural activities. CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management represented 24.9 percent and 9.3 percent of total CH₄ emissions from anthropogenic activities, respectively, in 2012. Agricultural soil management activities such as fertilizer application and other cropping practices were the largest source of U.S. N₂O emissions in 2012, accounting for 74.8 percent. In 2012, emission sources accounted for in the Agricultural chapters were responsible for 8.1 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions.

Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

The Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter contains emissions of CH₄ and N₂O, and emissions and removals of CO₂ from forest management, other land-use activities, and land-use change. Forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and the landfilling of yard trimmings and food scraps resulted in a net uptake (sequestration) of C in the United States. Forests (including vegetation, soils, and harvested wood) accounted for 88 percent of total 2012 net CO₂ flux, urban trees accounted for 9 percent, mineral and organic soil carbon stock changes accounted for 1 percent, and landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps accounted for 1 percent of the total net flux in 2012. The net forest sequestration is a result of net forest growth and increasing forest area, as well as a net accumulation of carbon stocks in harvested wood pools. The net sequestration in urban forests is a result of net tree growth in these areas. In agricultural soils, mineral and organic soils sequester approximately 4 times as much C as is emitted from these soils through liming and urea fertilization. The mineral soil C sequestration is largely due to the conversion of cropland to permanent pastures and hay production, a reduction in summer fallow areas in semi-arid areas, an increase in the adoption of conservation tillage practices, and an increase in the amounts of organic fertilizers (i.e., manure and sewage sludge) applied to agriculture lands. The landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps net sequestration is due to the long-term accumulation of yard trimming carbon and food scraps in landfills.

Land use, land-use change, and forestry activities in 2012 resulted in a net C sequestration of 979.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (Table ES-5). This represents an offset of 18.2 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions, or 15.0 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. Between 1990 and 2012, total land use, land-use change, and forestry net C flux resulted in a 17.8 percent increase in CO₂ sequestration, primarily due to an increase in the rate of net C accumulation in forest C stocks, particularly in aboveground and belowground tree biomass, and harvested wood pools. Annual C accumulation in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps slowed over this period, while the rate of annual C accumulation increased in urban trees.

Table ES-5: Net CO₂ Flux from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Sink Category	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	(704.6)	(927.2)	(871.0)	(849.4)	(855.7)	(867.1)	(866.5)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(51.9)	(29.1)	(29.8)	(29.2)	(27.6)	(27.5)	(26.5)
Land Converted to Cropland	26.9	20.9	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8
Grassland Remaining Grassland	(9.6)	5.6	6.8	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.7
Land Converted to Grassland	(7.3)	(8.3)	(8.7)	(8.7)	(8.6)	(8.6)	(8.5)

Settlements Remaining Settlements Other (Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps)	(60.4)	(80.5)	(83.9)	(85.0)	(86.1)	(87.3)	(88.4)
	(24.2)	(12.0)	(11.2)	(12.9)	(13.6)	(13.5)	(13.0)
Total	(831.1)	(1,030.7)	(981.0)	(961.6)	(968.0)	(980.3)	(979.3)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate net sequestration.

Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry are shown in Table ES-6. Liming of agricultural soils and urea fertilization in 2012 resulted in CO₂ emissions of 7.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (7,381 Gg). Lands undergoing peat extraction (i.e., *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*) resulted in CO₂ emissions of 0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (830 Gg), and N₂O emissions of less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. The application of synthetic fertilizers to forest soils in 2012 resulted in direct N₂O emissions of 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1 Gg). Direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer application to forest soils have increased by 455 percent since 1990, but still account for a relatively small portion of overall emissions. Additionally, direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer application to settlement soils in 2012 accounted for 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5 Gg). This represents an increase of 48 percent since 1990. Forest fires in 2012 resulted in CH₄ emissions of 15.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (727 Gg), and in N₂O emissions of 12.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (40 Gg).

Table ES-6: Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Source Category	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	8.1	8.9	9.6	8.3	9.6	8.8	8.2
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Liming of Agricultural Soils	4.7	4.3	5.0	3.7	4.8	3.9	3.9
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Urea Fertilization	2.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.4
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
CH₄	2.5	8.1	8.7	5.8	4.7	14.0	15.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	2.5	8.1	8.7	5.8	4.7	14.0	15.3
N₂O	3.1	8.4	9.0	6.5	5.7	13.3	14.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	2.0	6.6	7.1	4.7	3.9	11.4	12.5
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Soils	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Settlements Remaining Settlements: Settlement Soils	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	13.7	25.5	27.3	20.5	20.0	36.0	37.8

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Waste

The Waste chapter contains emissions from waste management activities (except incineration of waste, which is addressed in the Energy chapter). Landfills were the largest source of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions in the Waste chapter, accounting for 82.9 percent of this chapter's emissions, and 18.1 percent of total U.S. CH₄ emissions.¹⁹ Additionally, wastewater treatment accounts for 14.3 percent of Waste emissions, 2.2 percent of U.S. CH₄ emissions, and 1.2 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from composting are also accounted for in this chapter, generating emissions of 1.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. and 1.8 Tg CO₂ Eq., respectively. Overall,

¹⁹ Landfills also store carbon, due to incomplete degradation of organic materials such as wood products and yard trimmings, as described in the Land-Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter of the Inventory report.

emission sources accounted for in the Waste chapter generated 1.9 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012.

ES.4. Other Information

Emissions by Economic Sector

Throughout the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks report, emission estimates are grouped into six sectors (i.e., chapters) defined by the IPCC: Energy; Industrial Processes; Solvent Use; Agriculture; Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry; and Waste. While it is important to use this characterization for consistency with UNFCCC reporting guidelines, it is also useful to allocate emissions into more commonly used sectoral categories. This section reports emissions by the following economic sectors: Residential, Commercial, Industry, Transportation, Electricity Generation, Agriculture, and U.S. Territories.

Table ES-7 summarizes emissions from each of these sectors, and Figure ES-13 shows the trend in emissions by sector from 1990 to 2012.

Figure ES-13: Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors

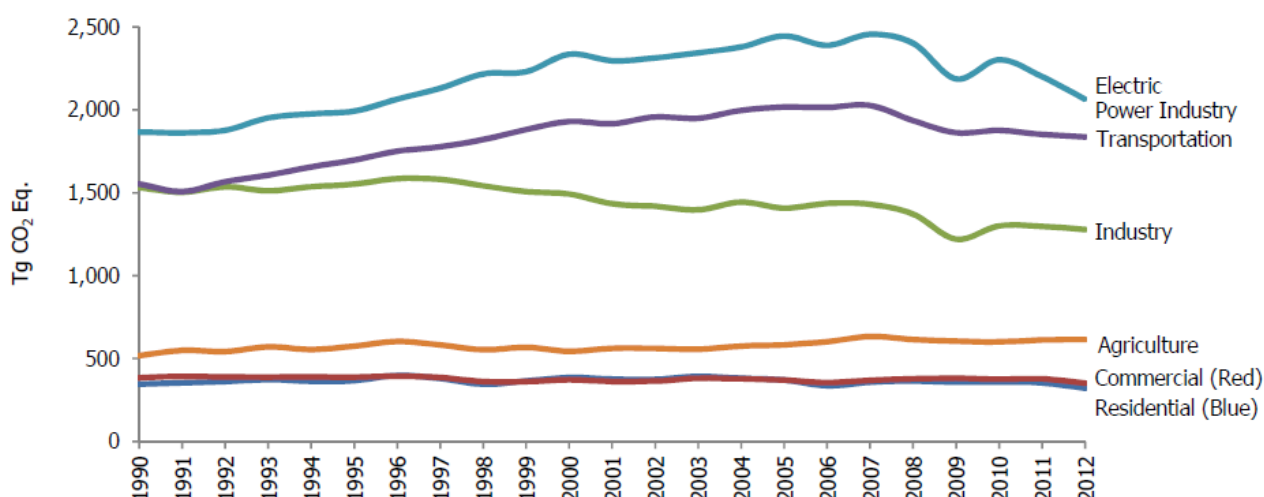


Table ES-7: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Implied Sectors	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Electric Power Industry	1,866.1	2,445.7	2,401.8	2,187.0	2,302.5	2,200.9	2,064.0
Transportation	1,553.2	2,017.2	1,935.2	1,862.4	1,876.4	1,852.1	1,837.0
Industry	1,531.5	1,407.5	1,371.5	1,220.5	1,300.5	1,297.5	1,278.4
Agriculture	518.1	583.6	615.3	605.3	600.9	612.7	614.1
Commercial	385.3	370.4	379.2	381.9	376.6	378.3	352.7
Residential	345.4	371.3	365.4	357.9	360.0	353.6	321.4
U.S. Territories	33.7	58.2	49.8	47.9	58.0	57.9	57.9
Total Emissions	6,233.2	7,253.8	7,118.1	6,662.9	6,874.7	6,753.0	6,525.6
<i>Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sinks)</i>	<i>(831.1)</i>	<i>(1,030.7)</i>	<i>(981.0)</i>	<i>(961.6)</i>	<i>(968.0)</i>	<i>(980.3)</i>	<i>(979.3)</i>
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,402.1	6,223.1	6,137.1	5,701.2	5,906.7	5,772.7	5,546.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Emissions include CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆. See Table 2-12 for more detailed data.

Using this categorization, emissions from electricity generation accounted for the largest portion (32 percent) of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. Transportation activities, in aggregate, accounted for the second largest portion (28 percent), while emissions from industry accounted for the third largest portion (20 percent) of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. In contrast to electricity generation and transportation, emissions from industry have in general declined over the past decade. The long-term decline in these emissions has been due to structural changes in the U.S. economy (i.e., shifts from a manufacturing-based to a service-based economy), fuel switching, and energy efficiency improvements. The remaining 21 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were contributed by, in order of importance, the agriculture, commercial, and residential sectors, plus emissions from U.S. Territories. Activities related to agriculture accounted for 9 percent of U.S. emissions; unlike other economic sectors, agricultural sector emissions were dominated by N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management and CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation. The commercial and residential sectors each accounted for 5 percent of emissions and U.S. Territories accounted for 1 percent of emissions; emissions from these sectors primarily consisted of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. CO₂ was also emitted and sequestered by a variety of activities related to forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and landfilling of yard trimmings.

Electricity is ultimately consumed in the economic sectors described above. Table ES-8 presents greenhouse gas emissions from economic sectors with emissions related to electricity generation distributed into end-use categories (i.e., emissions from electricity generation are allocated to the economic sectors in which the electricity is consumed). To distribute electricity emissions among end-use sectors, emissions from the source categories assigned to electricity generation were allocated to the residential, commercial, industry, transportation, and agriculture economic sectors according to retail sales of electricity.²⁰ These source categories include CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion and the use of limestone and dolomite for flue gas desulfurization, CO₂ and N₂O from incineration of waste, CH₄ and N₂O from stationary sources, and SF₆ from electrical transmission and distribution systems.

When emissions from electricity are distributed among these sectors, industrial activities and transportation account for the largest shares of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions (each with 28 percent) in 2012. The residential and commercial sectors contributed the next largest shares of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. Emissions from these sectors increase substantially when emissions from electricity are included, due to their relatively large share of electricity consumption (e.g., lighting, appliances, etc.). In all sectors except agriculture, CO₂ accounts for more than 80 percent of greenhouse gas emissions, primarily from the combustion of fossil fuels. Figure ES-14 shows the trend in these emissions by sector from 1990 to 2012.

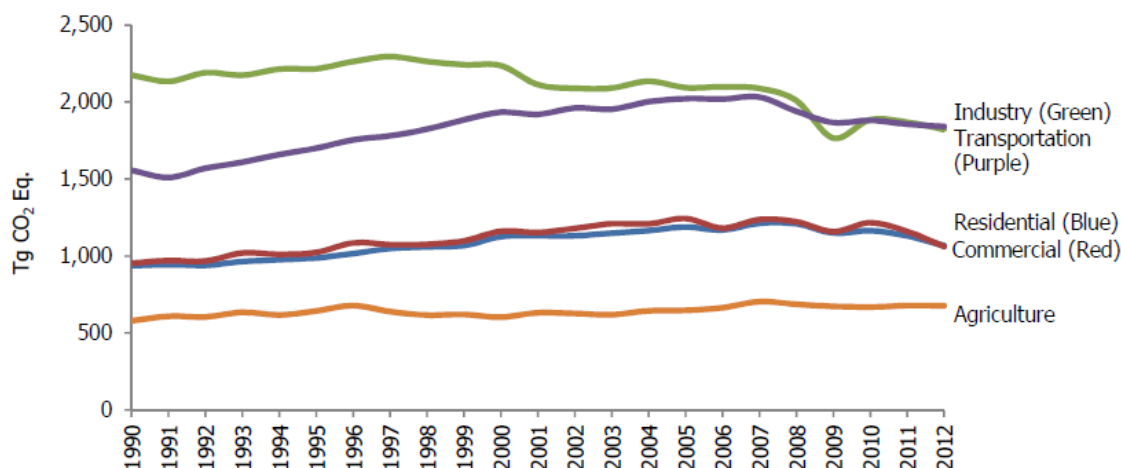
Table ES-8: U.S Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Economic Sector with Electricity-Related Emissions Distributed (Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq.)

Implied Sectors	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Industry	2,173.9	2,093.7	2,009.0	1,766.0	1,885.4	1,869.2	1,821.2
Transportation	1,556.3	2,022.0	1,939.9	1,866.9	1,880.9	1,856.4	1,841.0
Commercial	936.7	1,188.6	1,209.3	1,149.6	1,164.7	1,131.1	1,067.5
Residential	953.1	1,243.5	1,222.9	1,159.2	1,216.5	1,160.1	1,061.7
Agriculture	579.4	647.7	687.1	673.1	669.3	678.2	676.3
U.S. Territories	33.7	58.2	49.8	47.9	58.0	57.9	57.9
Total Emissions	6,233.2	7,253.8	7,118.1	6,662.9	6,874.7	6,753.0	6,525.6
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sinks)	(831.1)	(1,030.7)	(981.0)	(961.6)	(968.0)	(980.3)	(979.3)
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,402.1	6,223.1	6,137.1	5,701.2	5,906.7	5,772.7	5,546.3

See Table 2-14 for more detailed data.

²⁰ Emissions were not distributed to U.S. territories, since the electricity generation sector only includes emissions related to the generation of electricity in the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Figure ES-14: Emissions with Electricity Distributed to Economic Sectors



Box ES- 2: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions-Related Data

Total emissions can be compared to other economic and social indices to highlight changes over time. These comparisons include: (1) emissions per unit of aggregate energy consumption, because energy-related activities are the largest sources of emissions; (2) emissions per unit of fossil fuel consumption, because almost all energy-related emissions involve the combustion of fossil fuels; (3) emissions per unit of electricity consumption, because the electric power industry—utilities and nonutilities combined—was the largest source of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012; (4) emissions per unit of total gross domestic product as a measure of national economic activity; and (5) emissions per capita.

Table ES-9 provides data on various statistics related to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions normalized to 1990 as a baseline year. Greenhouse gas emissions in the United States have grown at an average annual rate of 0.2 percent since 1990. This rate is slightly slower than that for total energy and for fossil fuel consumption, and much slower than that for electricity consumption, overall gross domestic product and national population (see Figure ES-15).

Table ES-9: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Data (Index 1990 = 100)

Variable	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Avg. Annual Growth Rate
Greenhouse Gas Emissions ^a	100	116	114	107	110	108	105	0.2%
Energy Consumption ^b	100	119	118	113	117	116	113	0.6%
Fossil Fuel Consumption ^b	100	119	116	109	113	111	108	0.4%
Electricity Consumption ^b	100	134	136	131	137	137	135	1.4%
GDP ^c	100	159	166	161	165	168	173	2.5%
Population ^d	100	118	122	123	124	125	125	1.0%

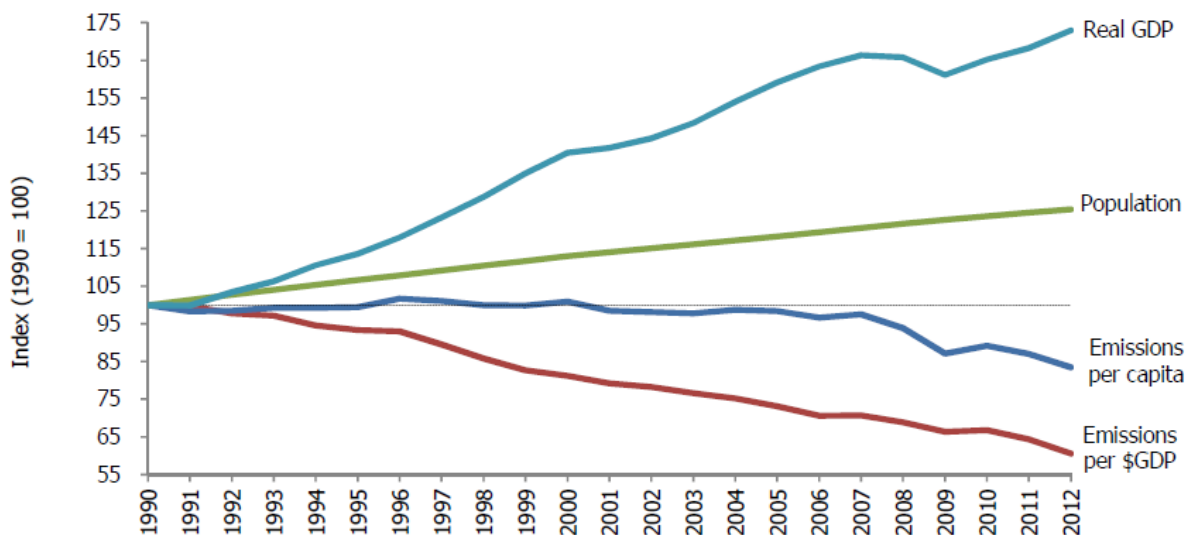
^a GWP-weighted values

^b Energy content-weighted values (EIA 2013)

^c Gross Domestic Product in chained 2009 dollars (BEA 2013)

^d U.S. Census Bureau (2013)

Figure ES-15: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar of Gross Domestic Product



Source: BEA (2013), U.S. Census Bureau (2013), and emission estimates in this report.

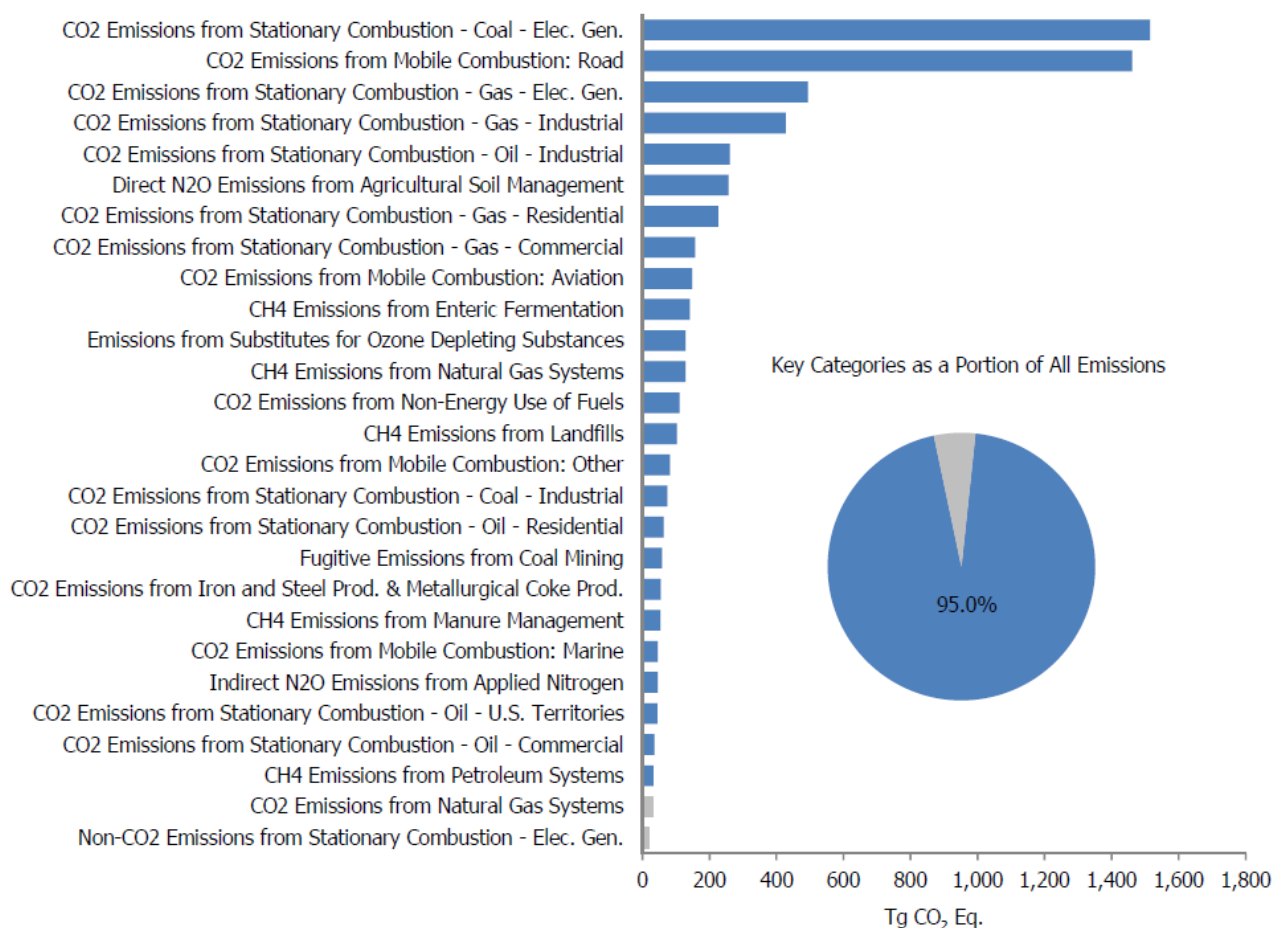
Key Categories

The IPCC *Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000) defines a key category as a “[source or sink category] that is prioritized within the national inventory system because its estimate has a significant influence on a country’s total inventory of direct greenhouse gases in terms of the absolute level of emissions, the trend in emissions, or both.”²¹ By definition, key categories are sources or sinks that have the greatest contribution to the absolute overall level of national emissions in any of the years covered by the time series. In addition, when an entire time series of emission estimates is prepared, a thorough investigation of key categories must also account for the influence of trends of individual source and sink categories. Finally, a qualitative evaluation of key categories should be performed, in order to capture any key categories that were not identified in either of the quantitative analyses.

Figure ES-16 presents 2012 emission estimates for the key categories as defined by a level analysis (i.e., the contribution of each source or sink category to the total inventory level). The UNFCCC reporting guidelines request that key category analyses be reported at an appropriate level of disaggregation, which may lead to source and sink category names which differ from those used elsewhere in the inventory report. For more information regarding key categories, see section 1.5 and Annex 1.

²¹ See Chapter 7 “Methodological Choice and Recalculation” in IPCC (2000). <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/gp/gpgaum.htm>>.

Figure ES-16: 2012 Key Categories



Note: For a complete discussion of the key category analysis, see Annex 1. Blue bars indicate a Tier 1 level assessment key category. Gray bars indicate a Tier 2 level assessment key category.

Quality Assurance and Quality Control (QA/QC)

The United States seeks to continually improve the quality, transparency, and credibility of the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks. To assist in these efforts, the United States implemented a systematic approach to QA/QC. While QA/QC has always been an integral part of the U.S. national system for inventory development, the procedures followed for the current inventory have been formalized in accordance with the QA/QC plan and the UNFCCC reporting guidelines.

Uncertainty Analysis of Emission Estimates

While the current U.S. emissions inventory provides a solid foundation for the development of a more detailed and comprehensive national inventory, there are uncertainties associated with the emission estimates. Some of the current estimates, such as those for CO₂ emissions from energy-related activities and cement processing, are considered to have low uncertainties. For some other categories of emissions, however, a lack of data or an incomplete understanding of how emissions are generated increases the uncertainty associated with the estimates presented. Acquiring a better understanding of the uncertainty associated with inventory estimates is an important step in helping to prioritize future work and improve the overall quality of the Inventory. Recognizing the benefit of conducting an uncertainty analysis, the UNFCCC reporting guidelines follow the recommendations of the *IPCC*

Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2000) and require that countries provide single estimates of uncertainty for source and sink categories.

Currently, a qualitative discussion of uncertainty is presented for all source and sink categories. Within the discussion of each emission source, specific factors affecting the uncertainty surrounding the estimates are discussed. Most sources also contain a quantitative uncertainty assessment, in accordance with UNFCCC reporting guidelines.

Box ES- 3: Recalculations of Inventory Estimates

Each year, emission and sink estimates are recalculated and revised for all years in the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks, as attempts are made to improve both the analyses themselves, through the use of better methods or data, and the overall usefulness of the report. In this effort, the United States follows the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006), which states, “Both methodological changes and refinements over time are an essential part of improving inventory quality. It is good practice to change or refine methods” when: available data have changed; the previously used method is not consistent with the IPCC guidelines for that category; a category has become key; the previously used method is insufficient to reflect mitigation activities in a transparent manner; the capacity for inventory preparation has increased; new inventory methods become available; and for correction of errors.” In general, recalculations are made to the U.S. greenhouse gas emission estimates either to incorporate new methodologies or, most commonly, to update recent historical data.

In each Inventory report, the results of all methodology changes and historical data updates are presented in the "Recalculations and Improvements" chapter; detailed descriptions of each recalculation are contained within each source's description contained in the report, if applicable. In general, when methodological changes have been implemented, the entire time series (in the case of the most recent inventory report, 1990 through 2012) has been recalculated to reflect the change, per the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006). Changes in historical data are generally the result of changes in statistical data supplied by other agencies. References for the data are provided for additional information.

1. Introduction

This report presents estimates by the United States government of U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions and sinks for the years 1990 through 2012. A summary of these estimates is provided in Table 2-1 and Table 2-2 by gas and source category in the Trends in Greenhouse Gas Emissions chapter. The emission estimates in these tables are presented on both a full molecular mass basis and on a Global Warming Potential (GWP) weighted basis in order to show the relative contribution of each gas to global average radiative forcing. This report also discusses the methods and data used to calculate these emission estimates.

In 1992, the United States signed and ratified the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). As stated in Article 2 of the UNFCCC, “The ultimate objective of this Convention and any related legal instruments that the Conference of the Parties may adopt is to achieve, in accordance with the relevant provisions of the Convention, stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. Such a level should be achieved within a time-frame sufficient to allow ecosystems to adapt naturally to climate change, to ensure that food production is not threatened and to enable economic development to proceed in a sustainable manner.”^{22,23}

Parties to the Convention, by ratifying, “shall develop, periodically update, publish and make available...national inventories of anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of all greenhouse gases not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, using comparable methodologies...”²⁴ The United States views this report as an opportunity to fulfill these commitments under the UNFCCC.

In 1988, preceding the creation of the UNFCCC, the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) jointly established the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). The role of the IPCC is to assess on a comprehensive, objective, open and transparent basis the scientific, technical and socio-economic information relevant to understanding the scientific basis of risk of human-induced climate change, its potential impacts and options for adaptation and mitigation (IPCC 2003). Under Working Group I of the IPCC, nearly 140 scientists and national experts from more than thirty countries collaborated in the creation of the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) to ensure that the emission inventories submitted to the UNFCCC are consistent and comparable between nations. The IPCC accepted the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines at its Twelfth Session (Mexico City, September 11-13, 1996). This report presents information in accordance with these guidelines. In addition, this Inventory is in accordance with the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance and Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* and the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry*, which further expanded upon the methodologies in the Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines. The IPCC has also accepted the *2006 Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) at its Twenty-Fifth Session (Mauritius, April 2006). The 2006 IPCC

²² The term “anthropogenic,” in this context, refers to greenhouse gas emissions and removals that are a direct result of human activities or are the result of natural processes that have been affected by human activities (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

²³ Article 2 of the Framework Convention on Climate Change published by the UNEP/WMO Information Unit on Climate Change. See <<http://unfccc.int>>. (UNEP/WMO 2000)

²⁴ Article 4(1)(a) of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (also identified in Article 12). Subsequent decisions by the Conference of the Parties elaborated the role of Annex I Parties in preparing national inventories. See <<http://unfccc.int>>.

Guidelines build on the previous bodies of work and includes new sources and gases "...as well as updates to the previously published methods whenever scientific and technical knowledge have improved since the previous guidelines were issued." Many of the methodological improvements presented in the 2006 Guidelines have been adopted in this Inventory.

Overall, this inventory of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions provides a common and consistent mechanism through which Parties to the UNFCCC can estimate emissions and compare the relative contribution of individual sources, gases, and nations to climate change. The inventory provides a national estimate of sources and sinks for the United States, including all states and U.S. territories.²⁵ The structure of this report is consistent with the current UNFCCC Guidelines on Annual Inventories (UNFCCC 2006).

Box 1-1: Methodological approach for estimating and reporting U.S. emissions and sinks

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emissions inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in this report are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the IPCC.²⁶ Additionally, the calculated emissions and sinks in a given year for the United States are presented in a common manner in line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for the reporting of inventories under this international agreement.²⁷ The use of consistent methods to calculate emissions and sinks by all nations providing their inventories to the UNFCCC ensures that these reports are comparable. In this regard, U.S. emissions and sinks reported in this inventory report are comparable to emissions and sinks reported by other countries. Emissions and sinks provided in this inventory do not preclude alternative examinations, but rather this inventory report presents emissions and sinks in a common format consistent with how countries are to report inventories under the UNFCCC. The report itself follows this standardized format, and provides an explanation of the IPCC methods used to calculate emissions and sinks, and the manner in which those calculations are conducted.

On October 30, 2009, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) published a rule for the mandatory reporting of greenhouse gases (GHG) from large GHG emissions sources in the United States. Implementation of 40 CFR Part 98 is referred to as the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP). 40 CFR Part 98 applies to direct greenhouse gas emitters, fossil fuel suppliers, industrial gas suppliers, and facilities that inject CO₂ underground for sequestration or other reasons²⁸. Reporting is at the facility level, except for certain suppliers of fossil fuels and industrial greenhouse gases. The GHGRP dataset and the data presented in this Inventory report are complementary and, as indicated in the respective planned improvements sections in this report's chapters, EPA is analyzing the data for use, as applicable, to improve the national estimates presented in this Inventory.

1.1 Background Information

Science

For over the past 200 years, the burning of fossil fuels such as coal and oil, deforestation, and other sources have caused the concentrations of heat-trapping "greenhouse gases" to increase significantly in our atmosphere. These

²⁵ U.S. Territories include American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands.

²⁶ See <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/index.html>>.

²⁷ See <http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/national_inventories_submissions/items/5270.php>.

²⁸ See <<http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/emissions/ghgrulemaking.html>> and <<http://ghgdata.epa.gov/ghgp/main.do>>.

gases absorb some of the energy being radiated from the surface of the earth and trap it in the atmosphere, essentially acting like a blanket that makes the earth's surface warmer than it would be otherwise.

Greenhouse gases are necessary to life as we know it, because without them the planet's surface would be about 60 °F cooler than present. But, as the concentrations of these gases continue to increase in the atmosphere, the Earth's temperature is climbing above past levels. According to NOAA and NASA data, the Earth's average surface temperature has increased by about 1.2 to 1.4 °F since 1900. The ten warmest years on record (since 1850) have all occurred in the past 15 years (EPA 2013). Most of the warming in recent decades is very likely the result of human activities. Other aspects of the climate are also changing such as rainfall patterns, snow and ice cover, and sea level.

If greenhouse gases continue to increase, climate models predict that the average temperature at the Earth's surface could increase from 2.0 to 11.5 °F above 1990 levels by the end of this century (IPCC 2007). Scientists are certain that human activities are changing the composition of the atmosphere, and that increasing the concentration of greenhouse gases will change the planet's climate. However, they are not sure by how much it will change, at what rate it will change, or what the exact effects will be.²⁹

Greenhouse Gases

Although the Earth's atmosphere consists mainly of oxygen and nitrogen, neither plays a significant role in enhancing the greenhouse effect because both are essentially transparent to terrestrial radiation. The greenhouse effect is primarily a function of the concentration of water vapor, carbon dioxide (CO₂), and other trace gases in the atmosphere that absorb the terrestrial radiation leaving the surface of the Earth (IPCC 2001). Changes in the atmospheric concentrations of these greenhouse gases can alter the balance of energy transfers between the atmosphere, space, land, and the oceans.³⁰ A gauge of these changes is called radiative forcing, which is a measure of the influence a factor has in altering the balance of incoming and outgoing energy in the Earth-atmosphere system (IPCC 2001). Holding everything else constant, increases in greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere will produce positive radiative forcing (i.e., a net increase in the absorption of energy by the Earth).

Climate change can be driven by changes in the atmospheric concentrations of a number of radiatively active gases and aerosols. We have clear evidence that human activities have affected concentrations, distributions and life cycles of these gases (IPCC 1996).

Naturally occurring greenhouse gases include water vapor, CO₂, methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and ozone (O₃). Several classes of halogenated substances that contain fluorine, chlorine, or bromine are also greenhouse gases, but they are, for the most part, solely a product of industrial activities. Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) are halocarbons that contain chlorine, while halocarbons that contain bromine are referred to as bromofluorocarbons (i.e., halons). As stratospheric ozone depleting substances, CFCs, HCFCs, and halons are covered under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. The UNFCCC defers to this earlier international treaty. Consequently, Parties to the UNFCCC are not required to include these gases in national greenhouse gas inventories.³¹ Some other fluorine-containing halogenated substances—hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆)—do not deplete stratospheric ozone but are potent greenhouse gases. These latter substances are addressed by the UNFCCC and accounted for in national greenhouse gas inventories.

There are also several gases that, although they do not have a commonly agreed upon direct radiative forcing effect, do influence the global radiation budget. These tropospheric gases include carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), and tropospheric (ground level) ozone (O₃). Tropospheric ozone is formed by two precursor pollutants, volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) in the presence of ultraviolet light (sunlight). Aerosols are extremely small particles or liquid droplets that are often composed of sulfur compounds, carbonaceous combustion products, crustal materials and other human induced pollutants. They can

²⁹ For more information see <<http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/science>>.

³⁰ For more on the science of climate change, see NRC (2001).

³¹ Emissions estimates of CFCs, HCFCs, halons and other ozone-depleting substances are included in this document for informational purposes.

affect the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere. Comparatively, however, the level of scientific understanding of aerosols is still very low (IPCC 2001).

CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O are continuously emitted to and removed from the atmosphere by natural processes on Earth. Anthropogenic activities, however, can cause additional quantities of these and other greenhouse gases to be emitted or sequestered, thereby changing their global average atmospheric concentrations. Natural activities such as respiration by plants or animals and seasonal cycles of plant growth and decay are examples of processes that only cycle carbon or nitrogen between the atmosphere and organic biomass. Such processes, except when directly or indirectly perturbed out of equilibrium by anthropogenic activities, generally do not alter average atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations over decadal timeframes. Climatic changes resulting from anthropogenic activities, however, could have positive or negative feedback effects on these natural systems. Atmospheric concentrations of these gases, along with their rates of growth and atmospheric lifetimes, are presented in Table 1-1.

Table 1-1: Global Atmospheric Concentration, Rate of Concentration Change, and Atmospheric Lifetime (Years) of Selected Greenhouse Gases

Atmospheric Variable	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	SF ₆	CF ₄
Pre-industrial atmospheric concentration	280 ppm	0.700 ppm	0.270 ppm	0 ppt	40 ppt
Atmospheric concentration	391 ppm	1.758-1.874 ppm ^a	0.323-0.324 ppm ^a	7.09-7.47 ppt	74 ppt
Rate of concentration change	1.4 ppm/yr	0.005 ppm/yr ^b	0.26%/yr	Linear ^c	Linear ^c
Atmospheric lifetime (years)	See footnote ^d	12 ^e	114 ^e	3,200	>50,000

Source: Pre-industrial atmospheric concentrations and rate of concentration changes for all gases are from IPCC (2007). The current atmospheric concentration for CO₂ is from NOAA/ESRL (2013).

^a The range is the annual arithmetic averages from a mid-latitude Northern-Hemisphere site and a mid-latitude Southern-Hemisphere site for 2011 (CDIAC 2013).

^b The growth rate for atmospheric CH₄ decreased from over 10 ppb/yr in the 1980s to nearly zero in the early 2000s; recently, the growth rate has been about 5 ppb/yr.

^c IPCC (2007) identifies the rate of concentration change for SF₆ and CF₄ as linear.

^d For a given amount of carbon dioxide emitted, some fraction of the atmospheric increase in concentration is quickly absorbed by the oceans and terrestrial vegetation, some fraction of the atmospheric increase will only slowly decrease over a number of years, and a small portion of the increase will remain for many centuries or more.

^e This lifetime has been defined as an “adjustment time” that takes into account the indirect effect of the gas on its own residence time.

A brief description of each greenhouse gas, its sources, and its role in the atmosphere is given below. The following section then explains the concept of GWPs, which are assigned to individual gases as a measure of their relative average global radiative forcing effect.

Water Vapor (H₂O). Overall, the most abundant and dominant greenhouse gas in the atmosphere is water vapor. Water vapor is neither long-lived nor well mixed in the atmosphere, varying spatially from 0 to 2 percent (IPCC 1996). In addition, atmospheric water can exist in several physical states including gaseous, liquid, and solid. Human activities are not believed to affect directly the average global concentration of water vapor, but, the radiative forcing produced by the increased concentrations of other greenhouse gases may indirectly affect the hydrologic cycle. While a warmer atmosphere has an increased water holding capacity, increased concentrations of water vapor affect the formation of clouds, which can both absorb and reflect solar and terrestrial radiation. Aircraft contrails, which consist of water vapor and other aircraft emittants, are similar to clouds in their radiative forcing effects (IPCC 1999).

Carbon Dioxide (CO₂). In nature, carbon is cycled between various atmospheric, oceanic, land biotic, marine biotic, and mineral reservoirs. The largest fluxes occur between the atmosphere and terrestrial biota, and between the atmosphere and surface water of the oceans. In the atmosphere, carbon predominantly exists in its oxidized form as CO₂. Atmospheric CO₂ is part of this global carbon cycle, and therefore its fate is a complex function of geochemical and biological processes. CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere increased from approximately 280 parts per million by volume (ppmv) in pre-industrial times to 391 ppmv in 2012, a 39.6 percent increase (IPCC 2007

and NOAA/ESRL 2013).^{32,33} The IPCC definitively states that “the present atmospheric CO₂ increase is caused by anthropogenic emissions of CO₂” (IPCC 2001). The predominant source of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions is the combustion of fossil fuels. Forest clearing, other biomass burning, and some non-energy production processes (e.g., cement production) also emit notable quantities of CO₂. In its Fifth Assessment Report, the IPCC stated “it is extremely likely that more than half of the observed increase in global average surface temperature from 1951 to 2010 was caused by the anthropogenic increase in greenhouse gas concentrations and other anthropogenic forcings together,” of which CO₂ is the most important (IPCC 2013).

Methane (CH₄). CH₄ is primarily produced through anaerobic decomposition of organic matter in biological systems. Agricultural processes such as wetland rice cultivation, enteric fermentation in animals, and the decomposition of animal wastes emit CH₄, as does the decomposition of municipal solid wastes. CH₄ is also emitted during the production and distribution of natural gas and petroleum, and is released as a by-product of coal mining and incomplete fossil fuel combustion. Atmospheric concentrations of CH₄ have increased by about 151 percent since 1750, from a pre-industrial value of about 700 ppb to 1,758-1,874 ppb in 2012,³⁴ although the rate of increase has been declining. The IPCC has estimated that slightly more than half of the current CH₄ flux to the atmosphere is anthropogenic, from human activities such as agriculture, fossil fuel use, and waste disposal (IPCC 2007).

CH₄ is removed from the atmosphere through a reaction with the hydroxyl radical (OH) and is ultimately converted to CO₂. Minor removal processes also include reaction with chlorine in the marine boundary layer, a soil sink, and stratospheric reactions. Increasing emissions of CH₄ reduce the concentration of OH, a feedback that may increase the atmospheric lifetime of CH₄ (IPCC 2001).

Nitrous Oxide (N₂O). Anthropogenic sources of N₂O emissions include agricultural soils, especially production of nitrogen-fixing crops and forages, the use of synthetic and manure fertilizers, and manure deposition by livestock; fossil fuel combustion, especially from mobile combustion; adipic (nylon) and nitric acid production; wastewater treatment and waste incineration; and biomass burning. The atmospheric concentration of N₂O has increased by 20 percent since 1750, from a pre-industrial value of about 270 ppb to 323-324 ppb in 2012,³⁵ a concentration that has not been exceeded during the last thousand years. N₂O is primarily removed from the atmosphere by the photolytic action of sunlight in the stratosphere (IPCC 2007).

Ozone (O₃). Ozone is present in both the upper stratosphere,³⁶ where it shields the Earth from harmful levels of ultraviolet radiation, and at lower concentrations in the troposphere,³⁷ where it is the main component of anthropogenic photochemical “smog.” During the last two decades, emissions of anthropogenic chlorine and bromine-containing halocarbons, such as CFCs, have depleted stratospheric ozone concentrations. This loss of ozone in the stratosphere has resulted in negative radiative forcing, representing an indirect effect of anthropogenic emissions of chlorine and bromine compounds (IPCC 1996). The depletion of stratospheric ozone and its radiative forcing was expected to reach a maximum in about 2000 before starting to recover.

The past increase in tropospheric ozone, which is also a greenhouse gas, is estimated to provide the third largest increase in direct radiative forcing since the pre-industrial era, behind CO₂ and CH₄. Tropospheric ozone is

³² The pre-industrial period is considered as the time preceding the year 1750 (IPCC 2001).

³³ Carbon dioxide concentrations during the last 1,000 years of the pre-industrial period (i.e., 750-1750), a time of relative climate stability, fluctuated by about ±10 ppmv around 280 ppmv (IPCC 2001).

³⁴ The range is the annual arithmetic averages from a mid-latitude Northern-Hemisphere site and a mid-latitude Southern-Hemisphere site for October 2011 through September 2012 (ERSL 2013).

³⁵ The range is the annual arithmetic averages from a mid-latitude Northern-Hemisphere site and a mid-latitude Southern-Hemisphere site for October 2011 through September 2012 (ERSL 2013).

³⁶ The stratosphere is the layer from the troposphere up to roughly 50 kilometers. In the lower regions the temperature is nearly constant but in the upper layer the temperature increases rapidly because of sunlight absorption by the ozone layer. The ozone-layer is the part of the stratosphere from 19 kilometers up to 48 kilometers where the concentration of ozone reaches up to 10 parts per million.

³⁷ The troposphere is the layer from the ground up to 11 kilometers near the poles and up to 16 kilometers in equatorial regions (i.e., the lowest layer of the atmosphere where people live). It contains roughly 80 percent of the mass of all gases in the atmosphere and is the site for most weather processes, including most of the water vapor and clouds.

produced from complex chemical reactions of volatile organic compounds mixing with NO_x in the presence of sunlight. The tropospheric concentrations of ozone and these other pollutants are short-lived and, therefore, spatially variable (IPCC 2001).

Halocarbons, Perfluorocarbons, and Sulfur Hexafluoride. Halocarbons are, for the most part, man-made chemicals that have both direct and indirect radiative forcing effects. Halocarbons that contain chlorine (CFCs, HCFCs, methyl chloroform, and carbon tetrachloride) and bromine (halons, methyl bromide, and hydrobromofluorocarbons HFCs) result in stratospheric ozone depletion and are therefore controlled under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. Although CFCs and HCFCs include potent global warming gases, their net radiative forcing effect on the atmosphere is reduced because they cause stratospheric ozone depletion, which itself is an important greenhouse gas in addition to shielding the Earth from harmful levels of ultraviolet radiation. Under the Montreal Protocol, the United States phased out the production and importation of halons by 1994 and of CFCs by 1996. Under the Copenhagen Amendments to the Protocol, a cap was placed on the production and importation of HCFCs by non-Article 5³⁸ countries beginning in 1996, and then followed by a complete phase-out by the year 2030. While ozone depleting gases covered under the Montreal Protocol and its Amendments are not covered by the UNFCCC, they are reported in this inventory under Annex 6.2 of this report for informational purposes.

HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are not ozone depleting substances, and therefore are not covered under the Montreal Protocol. They are, however, powerful greenhouse gases. HFCs are primarily used as replacements for ozone depleting substances but also emitted as a by-product of the HCFC-22 manufacturing process. Currently, they have a small aggregate radiative forcing impact, but it is anticipated that their contribution to overall radiative forcing will increase (IPCC 2001). PFCs and SF₆ are predominantly emitted from various industrial processes including aluminum smelting, semiconductor manufacturing, electric power transmission and distribution, and magnesium casting. Currently, the radiative forcing impact of PFCs and SF₆ is also small, but they have a significant growth rate, extremely long atmospheric lifetimes, and are strong absorbers of infrared radiation, and therefore have the potential to influence climate far into the future (IPCC 2001).

Carbon Monoxide. Carbon monoxide has an indirect radiative forcing effect by elevating concentrations of CH₄ and tropospheric ozone through chemical reactions with other atmospheric constituents (e.g., the hydroxyl radical, OH) that would otherwise assist in destroying CH₄ and tropospheric ozone. Carbon monoxide is created when carbon-containing fuels are burned incompletely. Through natural processes in the atmosphere, it is eventually oxidized to CO₂. Carbon monoxide concentrations are both short-lived in the atmosphere and spatially variable.

Nitrogen Oxides (NO_x). The primary climate change effects of nitrogen oxides (i.e., NO and NO₂) are indirect and result from their role in promoting the formation of ozone in the troposphere and, to a lesser degree, lower stratosphere, where they have positive radiative forcing effects.³⁹ Additionally, NO_x emissions from aircraft are also likely to decrease CH₄ concentrations, thus having a negative radiative forcing effect (IPCC 1999). Nitrogen oxides are created from lightning, soil microbial activity, biomass burning (both natural and anthropogenic fires) fuel combustion, and, in the stratosphere, from the photo-degradation of N₂O. Concentrations of NO_x are both relatively short-lived in the atmosphere and spatially variable.

Nonmethane Volatile Organic Compounds (NMVOCs). Non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds include substances such as propane, butane, and ethane. These compounds participate, along with NO_x, in the formation of tropospheric ozone and other photochemical oxidants. NMVOCs are emitted primarily from transportation and industrial processes, as well as biomass burning and non-industrial consumption of organic solvents. Concentrations of NMVOCs tend to be both short-lived in the atmosphere and spatially variable.

Aerosols. Aerosols are extremely small particles or liquid droplets found in the atmosphere. They can be produced by natural events such as dust storms and volcanic activity, or by anthropogenic processes such as fuel combustion and biomass burning. Aerosols affect radiative forcing differently than greenhouse gases, and their radiative effects

³⁸ Article 5 of the Montreal Protocol covers several groups of countries, especially developing countries, with low consumption rates of ozone depleting substances. Developing countries with per capita consumption of less than 0.3 kg of certain ozone depleting substances (weighted by their ozone depleting potential) receive financial assistance and a grace period of ten additional years in the phase-out of ozone depleting substances.

³⁹ NO_x emissions injected higher in the stratosphere, primarily from fuel combustion emissions from high altitude supersonic aircraft, can lead to stratospheric ozone depletion.

occur through direct and indirect mechanisms: directly by scattering and absorbing solar radiation; and indirectly by increasing droplet counts that modify the formation, precipitation efficiency, and radiative properties of clouds. Aerosols are removed from the atmosphere relatively rapidly by precipitation. Because aerosols generally have short atmospheric lifetimes, and have concentrations and compositions that vary regionally, spatially, and temporally, their contributions to radiative forcing are difficult to quantify (IPCC 2001).

The indirect radiative forcing from aerosols is typically divided into two effects. The first effect involves decreased droplet size and increased droplet concentration resulting from an increase in airborne aerosols. The second effect involves an increase in the water content and lifetime of clouds due to the effect of reduced droplet size on precipitation efficiency (IPCC 2001). Recent research has placed a greater focus on the second indirect radiative forcing effect of aerosols.

Various categories of aerosols exist, including naturally produced aerosols such as soil dust, sea salt, biogenic aerosols, sulfates, and volcanic aerosols, and anthropogenically manufactured aerosols such as industrial dust and carbonaceous⁴⁰ aerosols (e.g., black carbon, organic carbon) from transportation, coal combustion, cement manufacturing, waste incineration, and biomass burning.

The net effect of aerosols on radiative forcing is believed to be negative (i.e., net cooling effect on the climate), although because they remain in the atmosphere for only days to weeks, their concentrations respond rapidly to changes in emissions.⁴¹ Locally, the negative radiative forcing effects of aerosols can offset the positive forcing of greenhouse gases (IPCC 1996). “However, the aerosol effects do not cancel the global-scale effects of the much longer-lived greenhouse gases, and significant climate changes can still result” (IPCC 1996).

The IPCC’s Third Assessment Report notes that “the indirect radiative effect of aerosols is now understood to also encompass effects on ice and mixed-phase clouds, but the magnitude of any such indirect effect is not known, although it is likely to be positive” (IPCC 2001). Additionally, current research suggests that another constituent of aerosols, black carbon, has a positive radiative forcing, and that its presence “in the atmosphere above highly reflective surfaces such as snow and ice, or clouds, may cause a significant positive radiative forcing” (IPCC 2007). The primary anthropogenic emission sources of black carbon include diesel exhaust and open biomass burning.

Global Warming Potentials

A global warming potential is a quantified measure of the globally averaged relative radiative forcing impacts of a particular greenhouse gas (see Table 1-2). It is defined as the ratio of the time-integrated radiative forcing from the instantaneous release of 1 kilogram (kg) of a trace substance relative to that of 1 kg of a reference gas (IPCC 2001). Direct radiative effects occur when the gas itself absorbs radiation. Indirect radiative forcing occurs when chemical transformations involving the original gas produce a gas or gases that are greenhouse gases, or when a gas influences other radiatively important processes such as the atmospheric lifetimes of other gases. The reference gas used is CO₂, and therefore GWP-weighted emissions are measured in teragrams of CO₂ equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.).⁴² The relationship between gigagrams (Gg) of a gas and Tg CO₂ Eq. can be expressed as follows:

$$\text{Tg CO}_2 \text{ Eq} = (\text{Gg of gas}) \times (\text{GWP}) \times \left(\frac{\text{Tg}}{1,000 \text{ Gg}} \right)$$

where,

Tg CO₂ Eq. = Teragrams of CO₂ Equivalent

Gg = Gigagrams (equivalent to a thousand metric tons)

GWP = Global Warming Potential

⁴⁰ Carbonaceous aerosols are aerosols that are comprised mainly of organic substances and forms of black carbon (or soot) (IPCC 2001).

⁴¹ Volcanic activity can inject significant quantities of aerosol producing sulfur dioxide and other sulfur compounds into the stratosphere, which can result in a longer negative forcing effect (i.e., a few years) (IPCC 1996).

⁴² Carbon comprises 12/44^{ths} of carbon dioxide by weight.

Tg = Teragrams

GWP values allow for a comparison of the impacts of emissions and reductions of different gases. According to the IPCC, GWPs typically have an uncertainty of ± 35 percent. Parties to the UNFCCC have also agreed to use GWPs based upon a 100-year time horizon, although other time horizon values are available.

Greenhouse gas emissions and removals should be presented on a gas-by-gas basis in units of mass... In addition, consistent with decision 2/CP.3, Parties should report aggregate emissions and removals of greenhouse gases, expressed in CO₂ equivalent terms at summary inventory level, using GWP values provided by the IPCC in its Second Assessment Report... based on the effects of greenhouse gases over a 100-year time horizon.⁴³

Greenhouse gases with relatively long atmospheric lifetimes (e.g., CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆) tend to be evenly distributed throughout the atmosphere, and consequently global average concentrations can be determined. The short-lived gases such as water vapor, carbon monoxide, tropospheric ozone, ozone precursors (e.g., NO_x, and NMVOCs), and tropospheric aerosols (e.g., SO₂ products and carbonaceous particles), however, vary regionally, and consequently it is difficult to quantify their global radiative forcing impacts. Parties to the UNFCCC have not agreed upon GWP values for these gases that are short-lived and spatially inhomogeneous in the atmosphere.

Table 1-2: Global Warming Potentials and Atmospheric Lifetimes (Years) Used in this Report

Gas	Atmospheric Lifetime	GWP ^a
CO ₂	*	1
CH ₄ ^b	12 \pm 3	21
N ₂ O	120	310
HFC-23	264	11,700
HFC-32	5.6	650
HFC-125	32.6	2,800
HFC-134a	14.6	1,300
HFC-143a	48.3	3,800
HFC-152a	1.5	140
HFC-227ea	36.5	2,900
HFC-236fa	209	6,300
HFC-4310mee	17.1	1,300
CF ₄	50,000	6,500
C ₂ F ₆	10,000	9,200
C ₄ F ₁₀	2,600	7,000
C ₆ F ₁₄	3,200	7,400
SF ₆	3,200	23,900

Source: (IPCC 1996)

* For a given amount of carbon dioxide emitted, some fraction of the atmospheric increase in concentration is quickly absorbed by the oceans and terrestrial vegetation, some fraction of the atmospheric increase will only slowly decrease over a number of years, and a small portion of the increase will remain for many centuries or more.

^a 100-year time horizon

^b The GWP of CH₄ includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

⁴³ Framework Convention on Climate Change; <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/cop8/08.pdf>>; 1 November 2002; Report of the Conference of the Parties at its eighth session; held at New Delhi from 23 October to 1 November 2002; Addendum; Part One: Action taken by the Conference of the Parties at its eighth session; Decision -/CP.8; Communications from Parties included in Annex I to the Convention: Guidelines for the Preparation of National Communications by Parties Included in Annex I to the Convention, Part 1: UNFCCC reporting guidelines on annual inventories; p. 7. (UNFCCC 2003)

Box 1-2: The IPCC Fifth Assessment Report and Global Warming Potentials

In 2013, the IPCC published its Fifth Assessment Report (AR5), which provided an updated and more comprehensive scientific assessment of climate change. Within the AR5 report, the GWP values of several gases were revised relative to previous IPCC reports, namely the IPCC Second Assessment Report (SAR) (IPCC 1996), the IPCC Third Assessment Report (TAR) (IPCC 2001), and the IPCC's Fourth Assessment Report (AR4) (IPCC 2007). Although the SAR GWP values are used throughout this report, consistent with UNFCCC reporting requirements, it is interesting to review the changes to the GWP values and the impact improved understanding has on the total GWP-weighted emissions of the United States. In the AR5, the IPCC has applied an improved calculation of CO₂ radiative forcing and an improved CO₂ response function in presenting updated GWP values. Additionally, the atmospheric lifetimes of some gases have been recalculated, and updated background concentrations were used. In addition, the values for radiative forcing and lifetimes have been recalculated for a variety of halocarbons, which were not presented in the SAR. Table 1-3 presents the new GWP values, relative to those presented in the SAR and using the 100-year time horizon common to UNFCCC reporting.

Table 1-3: Comparison of 100-Year GWP values

Gas	SAR	TAR	AR4	AR5 ^b	Change from SAR		
					TAR	AR4	AR5
CO ₂	1	1	1	1	NC	NC	NC
CH ₄ ^a	21	23	25	28	2	4	7
N ₂ O	310	296	298	265	(14)	(12)	(45)
HFC-23	11,700	12,000	14,800	12,400	300	3,100	700
HFC-32	650	550	675	677	(100)	25	27
HFC-125	2,800	3,400	3,500	3,170	600	700	370
HFC-134a	1,300	1,300	1,430	1,300	NC	130	NC
HFC-143a	3,800	4,300	4,470	4,800	500	670	1,000
HFC-152a	140	120	124	138	(20)	(16)	(2)
HFC-227ea	2,900	3,500	3,220	3,350	600	320	450
HFC-236fa	6,300	9,400	9,810	8,060	3,100	3,510	1,760
HFC-4310mee	1,300	1,500	1,640	1,650	200	340	350
CF ₄	6,500	5,700	7,390	6,630	(800)	890	130
C ₂ F ₆	9,200	11,900	12,200	11,100	2,700	3,000	1,900
C ₄ F ₁₀	7,000	8,600	8,860	9,200	1,600	1,860	2,200
C ₆ F ₁₄	7,400	9,000	9,300	7,910	1,600	1,900	510
SF ₆	23,900	22,200	22,800	23,500	(1,700)	(1,100)	(400)

Source: (IPCC 2013, IPCC 2007, IPCC 2001, IPCC 1996)

NC (No Change)

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values.

^a The GWP of CH₄ includes the direct effects and those indirect effects due to the production of tropospheric ozone and stratospheric water vapor. The indirect effect due to the production of CO₂ is not included.

^b The GWPs presented here are the ones most consistent with the methodology used in the AR4 report. The AR5 report has also calculated GWPs (not shown here) where climate-carbon feedbacks have been included for the non-CO₂ gases in order to be consistent with the approach used in calculating the CO₂ lifetime. Additionally, the AR5 reported separate values for fossil versus biogenic methane in order to account for the CO₂ oxidation product.

To comply with international reporting standards under the UNFCCC, official emission estimates are reported by the United States using SAR GWP values. The UNFCCC reporting guidelines for national inventories⁴⁴ were updated in 2002 but continue to require the use of GWPs from the SAR so that current estimates of aggregate greenhouse gas emissions for 1990 through 2012 are consistent and comparable with estimates developed prior to the publication of the TAR, AR4 and AR5. All estimates provided throughout this report are also presented in unweighted units. For informational purposes, emission estimates that use the updated GWPs are presented in detail

⁴⁴ See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/cop8/08.pdf>>.

in Annex 6.1 of this report. It should be noted that the official greenhouse gas emissions presented in this report using the SAR GWP values are the final time the SAR GWP values will be used in the U.S. Inventory. The United States and other developed countries to the UNFCCC have agreed to submit annual inventories in 2015 and future years to the UNFCCC using GWP values from the IPCC AR4, which will replace the current use of SAR GWP values in their annual greenhouse gas inventories.⁴⁵

1.2 Institutional Arrangements

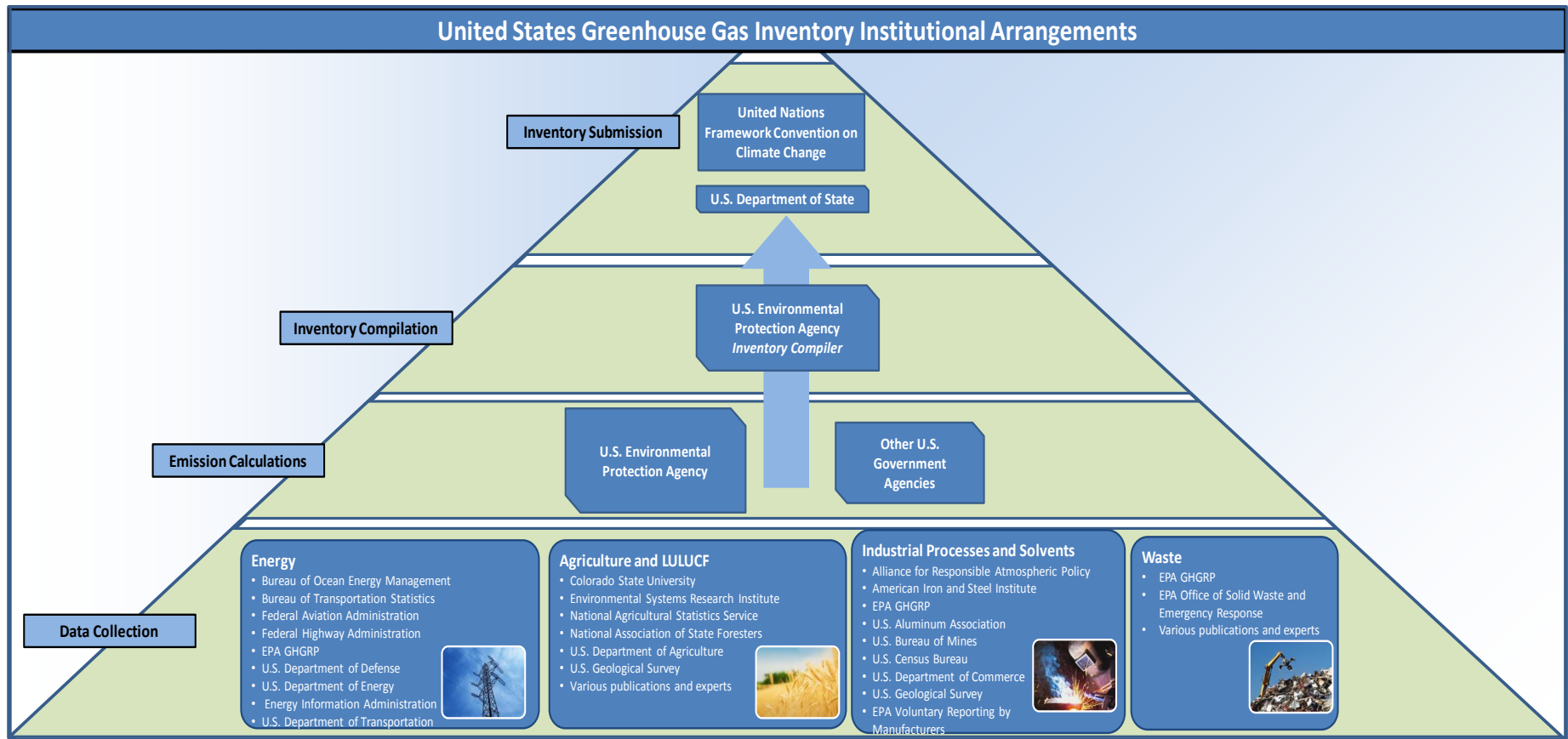
The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), in cooperation with other U.S. government agencies, prepares the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks. A wide range of agencies and individuals are involved in supplying data to, reviewing, or preparing portions of the U.S. Inventory—including federal and state government authorities, research and academic institutions, industry associations, and private consultants.

Within EPA, the Office of Atmospheric Programs (OAP) is the lead office responsible for the emission calculations provided in the Inventory, as well as the completion of the National Inventory Report and the Common Reporting Format tables. The Office of Transportation and Air Quality (OTAQ) is also involved in calculating emissions for the Inventory. While the U.S. Department of State officially submits the annual Inventory to the UNFCCC, EPA's OAP serves as the focal point for technical questions and comments on the U.S. Inventory. The staff of OAP and OTAQ coordinates the annual methodological choice, activity data collection, and emission calculations at the individual source category level. Within OAP, an inventory coordinator compiles the entire Inventory into the proper reporting format for submission to the UNFCCC, and is responsible for the collection and consistency of cross-cutting issues in the Inventory.

Several other government agencies contribute to the collection and analysis of the underlying activity data used in the Inventory calculations. Formal relationships exist between EPA and other U.S. agencies that provide official data for use in the Inventory. The U.S. Department of Energy's Energy Information Administration provides national fuel consumption data and the U.S. Department of Defense provides military fuel consumption and bunker fuels. Informal relationships also exist with other U.S. agencies to provide activity data for use in EPA's emission calculations. These include: the U.S. Department of Agriculture, the U.S. Geological Survey, the Federal Highway Administration, the Department of Transportation, the Bureau of Transportation Statistics, the Department of Commerce, the National Agricultural Statistics Service, and the Federal Aviation Administration. Academic and research centers also provide activity data and calculations to EPA, as well as individual companies participating in voluntary outreach efforts with EPA. Finally, the U.S. Department of State officially submits the Inventory to the UNFCCC each April diagrams the institutional arrangements.

⁴⁵ “Revision of the UNFCCC reporting guidelines on annual inventories for Parties included in Annex I to the Convention,” FCCC/CP/2011/9/Add.2, Decision 6/CP.17, 15 March 2012, available at <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2011/cop17/eng/09a02.pdf#page=23>>.

Figure 1-1: Institutional Arrangements Diagram



1.3 Inventory Process

EPA has a decentralized approach to preparing the annual U.S. Inventory, which consists of a National Inventory Report (NIR) and Common Reporting Format (CRF) tables. The Inventory coordinator at EPA is responsible for compiling all emission estimates and ensuring consistency and quality throughout the NIR and CRF tables. Emission calculations for individual sources are the responsibility of individual source leads, who are most familiar with each source category and the unique characteristics of its emissions profile. The individual source leads determine the most appropriate methodology and collect the best activity data to use in the emission calculations, based upon their expertise in the source category, as well as coordinating with researchers and contractors familiar with the sources. A multi-stage process for collecting information from the individual source leads and producing the Inventory is undertaken annually to compile all information and data.

Methodology Development, Data Collection, and Emissions and Sink Estimation

Source leads at EPA collect input data and, as necessary, evaluate or develop the estimation methodology for the individual source categories. For most source categories, the methodology for the previous year is applied to the new “current” year of the Inventory, and inventory analysts collect any new data or update data that have changed from the previous year. If estimates for a new source category are being developed for the first time, or if the methodology is changing for an existing source category (e.g., the United States is implementing a higher Tiered approach for that source category), then the source category lead will develop a new methodology, gather the most appropriate activity data and emission factors (or in some cases direct emission measurements) for the entire time series, and conduct a special source-specific peer review process involving relevant experts from industry, government, and universities.

Once the methodology is in place and the data are collected, the individual source leads calculate emissions and sink estimates. The source leads then update or create the relevant text and accompanying annexes for the Inventory. Source leads are also responsible for completing the relevant sectoral background tables of the Common Reporting Format, conducting quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) checks, and uncertainty analyses.

Summary Spreadsheet Compilation and Data Storage

The inventory coordinator at EPA collects the source categories’ descriptive text and Annexes, and also aggregates the emission estimates into a summary spreadsheet that links the individual source category spreadsheets together. This summary sheet contains all of the essential data in one central location, in formats commonly used in the Inventory document. In addition to the data from each source category, national trend and related data are also gathered in the summary sheet for use in the Executive Summary, Introduction, and Recent Trends sections of the Inventory report. Electronic copies of each year’s summary spreadsheet, which contains all the emission and sink estimates for the United States, are kept on a central server at EPA under the jurisdiction of the Inventory coordinator.

National Inventory Report Preparation

The NIR is compiled from the sections developed by each individual source lead. In addition, the inventory coordinator prepares a brief overview of each chapter that summarizes the emissions from all sources discussed in the chapters. The inventory coordinator then carries out a key category analysis for the Inventory, consistent with the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance, IPCC Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry*, and in accordance with the reporting requirements of the UNFCCC. Also at this time, the Introduction, Executive Summary, and Recent Trends sections are drafted, to reflect the trends for the most recent year of the current Inventory. The analysis of trends necessitates gathering supplemental data, including weather and temperature conditions, economic activity and gross domestic product, population, atmospheric conditions, and the annual

consumption of electricity, energy, and fossil fuels. Changes in these data are used to explain the trends observed in greenhouse gas emissions in the United States. Furthermore, specific factors that affect individual sectors are researched and discussed. Many of the factors that affect emissions are included in the Inventory document as separate analyses or side discussions in boxes within the text. Text boxes are also created to examine the data aggregated in different ways than in the remainder of the document, such as a focus on transportation activities or emissions from electricity generation. The document is prepared to match the specification of the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for National Inventory Reports.

Common Reporting Format Table Compilation

The CRF tables are compiled from individual tables completed by each individual source lead, which contain source emissions and activity data. The inventory coordinator integrates the source data into the UNFCCC's "CRF Reporter" for the United States, assuring consistency across all sectoral tables. The summary reports for emissions, methods, and emission factors used, the overview tables for completeness and quality of estimates, the recalculation tables, the notation key completion tables, and the emission trends tables are then completed by the inventory coordinator. Internal automated quality checks on the CRF Reporter, as well as reviews by the source leads, are completed for the entire time series of CRF tables before submission.

QA/QC and Uncertainty

QA/QC and uncertainty analyses are supervised by the QA/QC and Uncertainty coordinators, who have general oversight over the implementation of the QA/QC plan and the overall uncertainty analysis for the Inventory (see sections on QA/QC and Uncertainty, below). These coordinators work closely with the source leads to ensure that a consistent QA/QC plan and uncertainty analysis is implemented across all inventory sources. The inventory QA/QC plan, detailed in a following section, is consistent with the quality assurance procedures outlined by EPA and IPCC.

Expert and Public Review Periods

During the Expert Review period, a first draft of the document is sent to a select list of technical experts outside of EPA. The purpose of the Expert Review is to encourage feedback on the methodological and data sources used in the current Inventory, especially for sources which have experienced any changes since the previous Inventory.

Once comments are received and addressed, a second draft of the document is released for public review by publishing a notice in the U.S. Federal Register and posting the document on the EPA Web site. The Public Review period allows for a 30 day comment period and is open to the entire U.S. public.

Final Submittal to UNFCCC and Document Printing

After the final revisions to incorporate any comments from the Expert Review and Public Review periods, EPA prepares the final National Inventory Report and the accompanying Common Reporting Format Reporter database. The U.S. Department of State sends the official submission of the U.S. Inventory to the UNFCCC. The document is then formatted for printing, posted online, printed by the U.S. Government Printing Office, and made available for the public.

1.4 Methodology and Data Sources

Emissions of greenhouse gases from various source and sink categories have been estimated using methodologies that are consistent with the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). In addition, the United States references the additional guidance provided in the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* and *Uncertainty Management in National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2000), the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry* (IPCC 2003), and the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). To the extent possible, the present report relies

on published activity and emission factor data. Depending on the emission source category, activity data can include fuel consumption or deliveries, vehicle-miles traveled, raw material processed, etc. Emission factors are factors that relate quantities of emissions to an activity.

The IPCC methodologies provided in the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* represent baseline methodologies for a variety of source categories, and many of these methodologies continue to be improved and refined as new research and data become available. In this regard, the U.S. has implemented many methodological improvements published in the IPCC 2006 Guidelines. The use of the most recently published calculation methodologies by the IPCC, as contained in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines, is fully in line with the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* for methodological choice to improve rigor and accuracy. In addition, the improvements in using the latest methodological guidance from the IPCC have been recognized by the UNFCCC's Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice in the conclusions of its 30th Session⁴⁶. Numerous U.S. inventory experts were involved in the development of the 2006 IPCC Guidelines, and their expertise has provided this latest guidance from the IPCC with the most appropriate calculation methods that are then used in this inventory. This report uses the IPCC methodologies when applicable, and supplements them with other available country-specific methodologies and data where possible. Choices made regarding the methodologies and data sources used are provided in conjunction with the discussion of each source category in the main body of the report. Complete documentation is provided in the annexes on the detailed methodologies and data sources utilized in the calculation of each source category.

Box 1-3: IPCC Reference Approach

The UNFCCC reporting guidelines require countries to complete a "top-down" reference approach for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in addition to their "bottom-up" sectoral methodology. This estimation method uses alternative methodologies and different data sources than those contained in that section of the Energy chapter. The reference approach estimates fossil fuel consumption by adjusting national aggregate fuel production data for imports, exports, and stock changes rather than relying on end-user consumption surveys (see Annex 4 of this report). The reference approach assumes that once carbon-based fuels are brought into a national economy, they are either saved in some way (e.g., stored in products, kept in fuel stocks, or left unoxidized in ash) or combusted, and therefore the carbon in them is oxidized and released into the atmosphere. Accounting for actual consumption of fuels at the sectoral or sub-national level is not required.

1.5 Key Categories

The IPCC's Good Practice Guidance (IPCC 2000) defines a key category as a "[source or sink category] that is prioritized within the national inventory system because its estimate has a significant influence on a country's total inventory of direct greenhouse gases in terms of the absolute level of emissions, the trend in emissions, or both."⁴⁷ By definition, key categories include those sources that have the greatest contribution to the absolute level of national emissions. In addition, when an entire time series of emission estimates is prepared, a thorough investigation of key categories must also account for the influence of trends and uncertainties of individual source and sink categories. This analysis culls out source and sink categories that diverge from the overall trend in national

⁴⁶ These Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA) conclusions state, "The SBSTA acknowledged that the 2006 IPCC Guidelines contain the most recent scientific methodologies available to estimate emissions by sources and removals by sinks of greenhouse gases (GHGs) not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, and recognized that Parties have gained experience with the 2006 IPCC Guidelines. The SBSTA also acknowledged that the information contained in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines enables Parties to further improve the quality of their GHG inventories." See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2009/sbsta/eng/03.pdf>>.

⁴⁷ See Chapter 7 "Methodological Choice and Recalculation" in IPCC (2000). See <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/gp/gpgaum.htm>>.

emissions. Finally, a qualitative evaluation of key categories is performed to capture any categories that were not identified in any of the quantitative analyses.

A Tier 1 approach, as defined in the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000), was implemented to identify the key categories for the United States. This analysis was performed twice; one analysis included sources and sinks from the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (LULUCF) sector, the other analysis did not include the LULUCF categories. Following the Tier 1 approach, a Tier 2 approach, as defined in the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000), was then implemented to identify any additional key categories not already identified in the Tier 1 assessment. This analysis, which includes each source category's uncertainty assessments (or proxies) in its calculations, was also performed twice to include or exclude LULUCF categories.

In addition to conducting Tier 1 and 2 level and trend assessments, a qualitative assessment of the source categories, as described in the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000), was conducted to capture any key categories that were not identified by either quantitative method. One additional key category, international bunker fuels, was identified using this qualitative assessment. International bunker fuels are fuels consumed for aviation or marine international transport activities, and emissions from these fuels are reported separately from totals in accordance with IPCC guidelines. If these emissions were included in the totals, bunker fuels would qualify as a key category according to the Tier 1 approach. The amount of uncertainty associated with estimation of emissions from international bunker fuels also supports the qualification of this source category as key, because it would qualify bunker fuels as a key category according to the Tier 2 approach. Table 1-4 presents the key categories for the United States (including and excluding LULUCF categories) using emissions and uncertainty data in this report, and ranked according to their sector and global warming potential-weighted emissions in 2012. The table also indicates the criteria used in identifying these categories (i.e., level, trend, Tier 1, Tier 2, and/or qualitative assessments). Annex 1 of this report provides additional information regarding the key categories in the United States and the methodologies used to identify them.

Table 1-4: Key Categories for the United States (1990-2012)

IPCC Source Categories	Gas	Tier 1				Tier 2				Qual ^a	2012 Emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)
		Level Without LULUCF	Trend Without LULUCF	Level With LULUCF	Trend With LULUCF	Level Without LULUCF	Trend Without LULUCF	Level With LULUCF	Trend With LULUCF		
Energy											
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Coal - Electricity Generation	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		1,511.2
CO ₂ Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Road	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		1,469.8
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Gas - Electricity Generation	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		492.2
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Gas - Industrial	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		434.7
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Oil - Industrial	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		265.2
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Gas - Residential	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		224.8

CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Gas - Commercial	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•		156.9
CO ₂ Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Aviation	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	145.1
CO ₂ Emissions from Non-Energy Use of Fuels	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	110.3
CO ₂ Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Other	CO ₂	•	•	•	•				84.5
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Coal - Industrial	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	74.3
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Oil - Residential	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•			64.1
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Oil - U.S. Territories	CO ₂	•	•	•	•				44.7
CO ₂ Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Marine	CO ₂	•	•	•	•				40.1
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Oil - Commercial	CO ₂	•	•	•	•				36.4
CO ₂ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems	CO ₂	•		•		•	•		35.2
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Oil - Electricity Generation	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	18.8
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Coal - Commercial	CO ₂		•		•				4.1
CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Coal - Residential	CO ₂					•			0
Fugitive Emissions from Natural Gas Systems	CH ₄	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	129.9
Fugitive Emissions from Coal Mining	CH ₄	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	55.8
Fugitive Emissions from Petroleum Systems	CH ₄	•		•	•	•	•	•	31.7
Non-CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Residential	CH ₄					•	•	•	3.1
Non-CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Electricity Generation	N ₂ O		•		•	•	•	•	18.3

N ₂ O Emissions from Mobile Combustion: Road	N ₂ O	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	12.6
Non-CO ₂ Emissions from Stationary Combustion - Industrial	N ₂ O						•				2.5
International Bunker Fuels ^c	Several									•	112.8

Industrial Processes

CO ₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	54.3
CO ₂ Emissions from Cement Production	CO ₂	•		•							35.1
N ₂ O Emissions from Adipic Acid Production	N ₂ O		•		•						5.8
Emissions from Substitutes for Ozone Depleting Substances	HiGW P	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	146.8
SF ₆ Emissions from Electrical Transmission and Distribution	HiGW P		•		•		•		•		6.0
HFC-23 Emissions from HCFC-22 Production	HiGW P	•	•	•	•		•				4.3
PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production	HiGW P		•		•						2.5

Agriculture

CH ₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation	CH ₄	•		•		•		•			141.0
CH ₄ Emissions from Manure Management	CH ₄	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		52.9
Direct N ₂ O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management	N ₂ O	•	•	•		•	•	•			260.9
Indirect N ₂ O Emissions from Applied Nitrogen	N ₂ O	•		•		•	•	•			45.7

Waste

CH ₄ Emissions from Landfills	CH ₄	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		102.8
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Land Use, Land Use Change, and Forestry

CO ₂ Emissions from Land Converted to Cropland	CO ₂				•			•	•		16.8
CO ₂ Emissions from Grassland Remaining Grassland	CO ₂							•	•		6.7
CO ₂ Emissions from Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps	CO ₂				•			•	•		(13.2)
CO ₂ Emissions from Cropland Remaining Cropland	CO ₂				•	•		•	•		(26.5)

CO ₂ Emissions from Urban Trees	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	(88.4)
CO ₂ Emissions from Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks	CO ₂	•	•	•	•	(866.5)
CH ₄ Emissions from Forest Fires	CH ₄		•	•	•	15.3
N ₂ O Emissions from Forest Fires	N ₂ O		•	•	•	12.5
Subtotal Without LULUCF						6,324.6
Total Emissions Without LULUCF						6,487.8
Percent of Total Without LULUCF						97%
Subtotal With LULUCF						5,379.1
Total Emissions With LULUCF						5,546.3
Percent of Total With LULUCF						97%

^a Qualitative criteria.

^b Emissions from this source not included in totals.

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values (or sequestration).

1.6 Quality Assurance and Quality Control (QA/QC)

As part of efforts to achieve its stated goals for inventory quality, transparency, and credibility, the United States has developed a quality assurance and quality control plan designed to check, document and improve the quality of its inventory over time. QA/QC activities on the Inventory are undertaken within the framework of the U.S. QA/QC plan, Quality Assurance/Quality Control and Uncertainty Management Plan for the U.S. Greenhouse Gas Inventory: Procedures Manual for QA/QC and Uncertainty Analysis.

Key attributes of the QA/QC plan are summarized in Figure 1-2. These attributes include:

- *Procedures and Forms*: detailed and specific systems that serve to standardize the process of documenting and archiving information, as well as to guide the implementation of QA/QC and the analysis of uncertainty
- *Implementation of Procedures*: application of QA/QC procedures throughout the whole inventory development process from initial data collection, through preparation of the emission estimates, to publication of the Inventory
- *Quality Assurance*: expert and public reviews for both the inventory estimates and the Inventory report (which is the primary vehicle for disseminating the results of the inventory development process)
- *Quality Control*: consideration of secondary data and source-specific checks (Tier 2 QC) in parallel and coordination with the uncertainty assessment; the development of protocols and templates, which provides for more structured communication and integration with the suppliers of secondary information
- *Tier 1 (general) and Tier 2 (source-specific) Checks*: quality controls and checks, as recommended by IPCC Good Practice Guidance

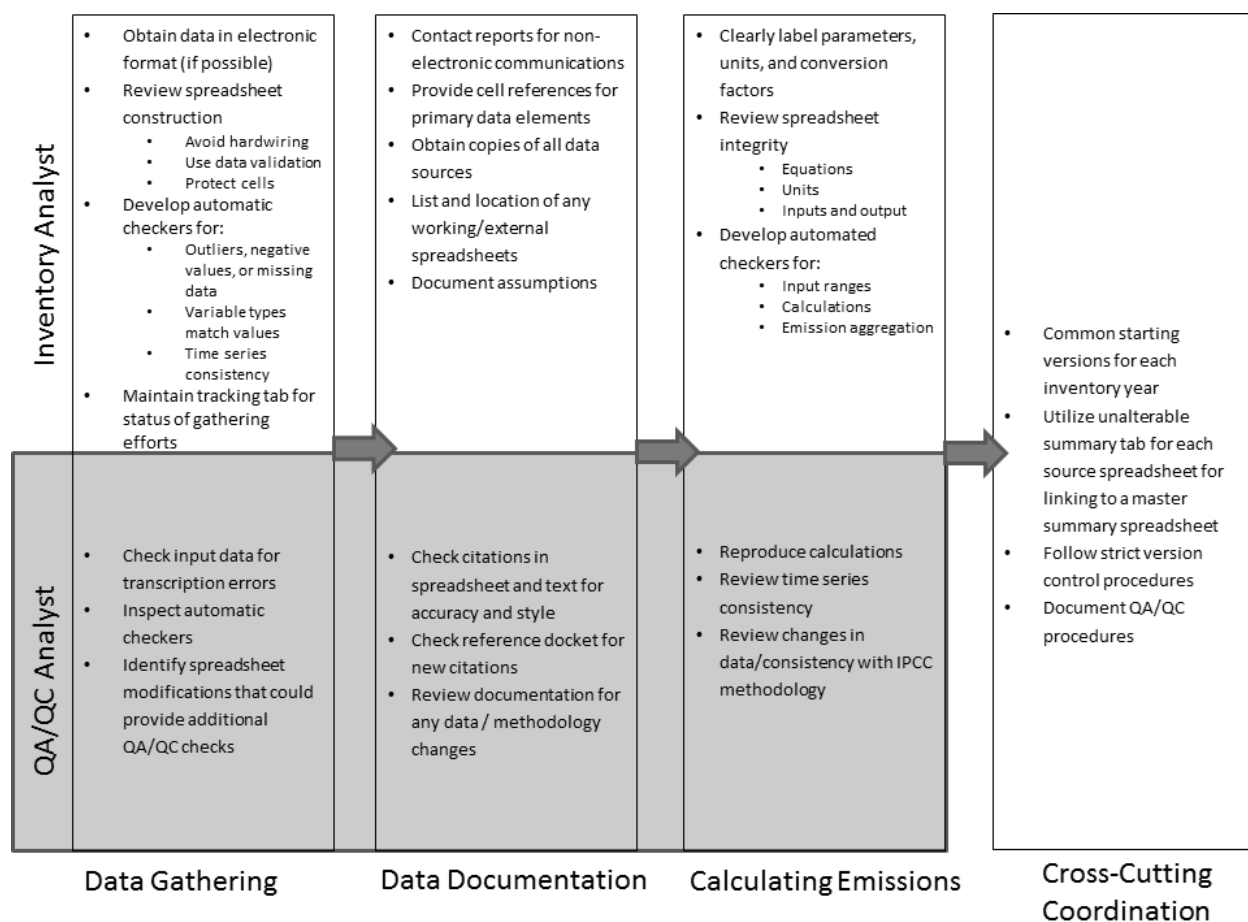
- *Record Keeping:* provisions to track which procedures have been followed, the results of the QA/QC, uncertainty analysis, and feedback mechanisms for corrective action based on the results of the investigations which provide for continual data quality improvement and guided research efforts
- *Multi-Year Implementation:* a schedule for coordinating the application of QA/QC procedures across multiple years
- *Interaction and Coordination:* promoting communication within the EPA, across Federal agencies and departments, state government programs, and research institutions and consulting firms involved in supplying data or preparing estimates for the Inventory. The QA/QC Management Plan itself is intended to be revised and reflect new information that becomes available as the program develops, methods are improved, or additional supporting documents become necessary.

In addition, based on the national QA/QC plan for the Inventory, source-specific QA/QC plans have been developed for a number of sources. These plans follow the procedures outlined in the national QA/QC plan, tailoring the procedures to the specific text and spreadsheets of the individual sources. For each greenhouse gas emissions source or sink included in this Inventory, a minimum of a Tier 1 QA/QC analysis has been undertaken. Where QA/QC activities for a particular source go beyond the minimum Tier 1 level, further explanation is provided within the respective source category text.

The quality control activities described in the U.S. QA/QC plan occur throughout the inventory process; QA/QC is not separate from, but is an integral part of, preparing the inventory. Quality control—in the form of both good practices (such as documentation procedures) and checks on whether good practices and procedures are being followed—is applied at every stage of inventory development and document preparation. In addition, quality assurance occurs at two stages—an expert review and a public review. While both phases can significantly contribute to inventory quality, the public review phase is also essential for promoting the openness of the inventory development process and the transparency of the inventory data and methods.

The QA/QC plan guides the process of ensuring inventory quality by describing data and methodology checks, developing processes governing peer review and public comments, and developing guidance on conducting an analysis of the uncertainty surrounding the emission estimates. The QA/QC procedures also include feedback loops and provide for corrective actions that are designed to improve the inventory estimates over time.

Figure 1-2: U.S. QA/QC Plan Summary



1.7 Uncertainty Analysis of Emission Estimates

Uncertainty estimates are an essential element of a complete and transparent emissions inventory. Uncertainty information is not intended to dispute the validity of the inventory estimates, but to help prioritize efforts to improve the accuracy of future inventories and guide future decisions on methodological choice. While the U.S. Inventory calculates its emission estimates with the highest possible accuracy, uncertainties are associated to a varying degree with the development of emission estimates for any inventory. Some of the current estimates, such as those for CO₂ emissions from energy-related activities, are considered to have minimal uncertainty associated with them. For some other categories of emissions, however, a lack of data or an incomplete understanding of how emissions are generated increases the uncertainty surrounding the estimates presented. The UNFCCC reporting guidelines follow the recommendation in the 1996 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) and require that countries provide single point estimates for each gas and emission or removal source category. Within the discussion of each emission source, specific factors affecting the uncertainty associated with the estimates are discussed.

Additional research in the following areas could help reduce uncertainty in the U.S. Inventory:

- Incorporating excluded emission sources.* Quantitative estimates for some of the sources and sinks of greenhouse gas emissions are not available at this time. In particular, emissions from some land-use activities and industrial processes are not included in the inventory either because data are incomplete or because methodologies do not exist for estimating emissions from these source categories. See Annex 5 of this report for a discussion of the sources of greenhouse gas emissions and sinks excluded from this report.

- *Improving the accuracy of emission factors.* Further research is needed in some cases to improve the accuracy of emission factors used to calculate emissions from a variety of sources. For example, the accuracy of current emission factors applied to CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary and mobile combustion is highly uncertain.
- *Collecting detailed activity data.* Although methodologies exist for estimating emissions for some sources, problems arise in obtaining activity data at a level of detail in which aggregate emission factors can be applied. For example, the ability to estimate emissions of SF₆ from electrical transmission and distribution is limited due to a lack of activity data regarding national SF₆ consumption or average equipment leak rates.

The overall uncertainty estimate for the U.S. greenhouse gas emissions inventory was developed using the IPCC Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology. Estimates of quantitative uncertainty for the overall greenhouse gas emissions inventory are shown below, in Table 1-5.

The IPCC provides good practice guidance on two approaches—Tier 1 and Tier 2—to estimating uncertainty for individual source categories. Tier 2 uncertainty analysis, employing the Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique, was applied wherever data and resources permitted; further explanation is provided within the respective source category text and in Annex 7. Consistent with the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000), over a multi-year timeframe, the United States expects to continue to improve the uncertainty estimates presented in this report.

Table 1-5: Estimated Overall Inventory Quantitative Uncertainty (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Gas	2012 Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^b				Mean ^c (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Standard Deviation ^c
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)			
		Lower Bound ^d	Upper Bound ^d	Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
CO ₂	5,382.8	5,265.2	5,629.5	-2%	5%	5,448	93
CH ₄ ^e	567.3	512.7	670.9	-10%	18%	586	40
N ₂ O ^e	410.1	378.0	540.2	-8%	32%	452	41
PFC, HFC & SF ₆ ^e	161.9	161.3	182.4	0%	13%	172	5
Total	6,522.0	6,448.3	6,873.0	-1%	5%	6,658	109
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,542.7	5,419.9	5,940.5	-2%	7%	5,681	134

Notes:

^a Emission estimates reported in this table correspond to emissions from only those source categories for which quantitative uncertainty was performed this year. Thus the totals reported in this table exclude approximately 3.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. of emissions for which quantitative uncertainty was not assessed. Hence, these emission estimates do not match the final total U.S. greenhouse gas emission estimates presented in this Inventory.

^b The lower and upper bounds for emission estimates correspond to a 95 percent confidence interval, with the lower bound corresponding to 2.5th percentile and the upper bound corresponding to 97.5th percentile.

^c Mean value indicates the arithmetic average of the simulated emission estimates; standard deviation indicates the extent of deviation of the simulated values from the mean.

^d The lower and upper bound emission estimates for the sub-source categories do not sum to total emissions because the low and high estimates for total emissions were calculated separately through simulations.

^e The overall uncertainty estimates did not take into account the uncertainty in the GWP values for CH₄, N₂O and high GWP gases used in the inventory emission calculations for 2011.

Emissions calculated for the U.S. Inventory reflect current best estimates; in some cases, however, estimates are based on approximate methodologies, assumptions, and incomplete data. As new information becomes available in the future, the United States will continue to improve and revise its emission estimates. See Annex 7 of this report for further details on the U.S. process for estimating uncertainty associated with the emission estimates and for a more detailed discussion of the limitations of the current analysis and plans for improvement. Annex 7 also includes details on the uncertainty analysis performed for selected source categories.

1.8 Completeness

This report, along with its accompanying CRF tables, serves as a thorough assessment of the anthropogenic sources and sinks of greenhouse gas emissions for the United States for the time series 1990 through 2012. Although this report is intended to be comprehensive, certain sources have been identified which were excluded from the estimates presented for various reasons. Generally speaking, sources not accounted for in this inventory are excluded due to data limitations or a lack of thorough understanding of the emission process. The United States is continually working to improve upon the understanding of such sources and seeking to find the data required to estimate related emissions. As such improvements are implemented, new emission sources are quantified and included in the Inventory. For a complete list of sources not included, see Annex 5 of this report.

1.9 Organization of Report

In accordance with the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997), and the *2006 UNFCCC Guidelines on Reporting and Review* (UNFCCC 2006), this Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks is segregated into six sector-specific chapters, listed below in Table 1-6. In addition, chapters on Trends in Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Other information to be considered as part of the U.S. Inventory submission are included.

Table 1-6: IPCC Sector Descriptions

Chapter/IPCC Sector	Activities Included
Energy	Emissions of all greenhouse gases resulting from stationary and mobile energy activities including fuel combustion and fugitive fuel emissions.
Industrial Processes	By-product or fugitive emissions of greenhouse gases from industrial processes not directly related to energy activities such as fossil fuel combustion.
Solvent and Other Product Use	Emissions, of primarily NMVOCs, resulting from the use of solvents and N ₂ O from product uses.
Agriculture	Anthropogenic emissions from agricultural activities except fuel combustion, which is addressed under Energy.
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry	Emissions and removals of CO ₂ , CH ₄ , and N ₂ O from forest management, other land-use activities, and land-use change.
Waste	Emissions from waste management activities.

Source: (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997)

Within each chapter, emissions are identified by the anthropogenic activity that is the source or sink of the greenhouse gas emissions being estimated (e.g., coal mining). Overall, the following organizational structure is consistently applied throughout this report:

Chapter/IPCC Sector: Overview of emission trends for each IPCC defined sector

Source category: Description of source pathway and emission trends.

Methodology: Description of analytical methods employed to produce emission estimates and identification of data references, primarily for activity data and emission factors.

Uncertainty: A discussion and quantification of the uncertainty in emission estimates and a discussion of time-series consistency.

QA/QC and Verification: A discussion on steps taken to QA/QC and verify the emission estimates, where beyond the overall U.S. QA/QC plan, and any key findings.

Recalculations: A discussion of any data or methodological changes that necessitate a recalculation of previous years' emission estimates, and the impact of the recalculation on the emission estimates, if applicable.

Planned Improvements: A discussion on any source-specific planned improvements, if applicable.

Special attention is given to CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion relative to other sources because of its share of emissions and its dominant influence on emission trends. For example, each energy consuming end-use sector (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, and transportation), as well as the electricity generation sector, is described individually. Additional information for certain source categories and other topics is also provided in several Annexes listed in Table 1-7.

Table 1-7: List of Annexes

ANNEX 1	Key Category Analysis
ANNEX 2	Methodology and Data for Estimating CO ₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion
2.1.	Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion
2.2.	Methodology for Estimating the Carbon Content of Fossil Fuels
2.3.	Methodology for Estimating Carbon Emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels
ANNEX 3	Methodological Descriptions for Additional Source or Sink Categories
3.1.	Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH ₄ , N ₂ O, and Indirect Greenhouse Gases from Stationary Combustion
3.2.	Methodology for Estimating Emissions of CH ₄ , N ₂ O, and Indirect Greenhouse Gases from Mobile Combustion and Methodology for and Supplemental Information on Transportation-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions
3.3.	Methodology for Estimating Emissions from Commercial Aircraft Jet Fuel Consumption
3.4.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ Emissions from Coal Mining
3.5.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems
3.6.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ and CO ₂ Emissions from Petroleum Systems
3.7.	Methodology for Estimating CO ₂ and N ₂ O Emissions from Incineration of Waste
3.8.	Methodology for Estimating Emissions from International Bunker Fuels used by the U.S. Military
3.9.	Methodology for Estimating HFC and PFC Emissions from Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances
3.10.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation
3.11.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ and N ₂ O Emissions from Manure Management
3.12.	Methodology for Estimating N ₂ O Emissions and Soil Organic C Stock Changes from Agricultural Soil Management (Cropland and Grassland)
3.13.	Methodology for Estimating Net Carbon Stock Changes in Forest Lands Remaining Forest Lands
3.14.	Methodology for Estimating CH ₄ Emissions from Landfills
ANNEX 4	IPCC Reference Approach for Estimating CO ₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion
ANNEX 5	Assessment of the Sources and Sinks of Greenhouse Gas Emissions Not Included
ANNEX 6	Additional Information
6.1.	Global Warming Potential Values
6.2.	Ozone Depleting Substance Emissions
6.3.	Sulfur Dioxide Emissions
6.4.	Complete List of Source Categories
6.5.	Constants, Units, and Conversions
6.6.	Abbreviations
6.7.	Chemical Formulas
ANNEX 7	Uncertainty
7.1.	Overview
7.2.	Methodology and Results
7.3.	Planned Improvements
ANNEX 8	QA/QC Procedures
8.1.	Background
8.2.	Purpose
8.3.	Assessment Factors

2. Trends in Greenhouse Gas Emissions

2.1 Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks

In 2012, total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were 6,525.6 Tg or million metric tons CO₂ Eq. Total U.S. emissions have increased by 4.7 percent from 1990 to 2012, and emissions decreased from 2011 to 2012 by 3.4 percent (227.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.). The decrease from 2011 to 2012 was due to a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels consumed to generate electricity due to a decrease in coal consumption, with increased natural gas consumption. Additionally, relatively mild winter conditions, especially in regions of the United States where electricity is an important heating fuel, resulted in an overall decrease in electricity demand in most sectors. Since 1990, U.S. emissions have increased at an average annual rate of 0.2 percent.

Figure 2-1: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Gas

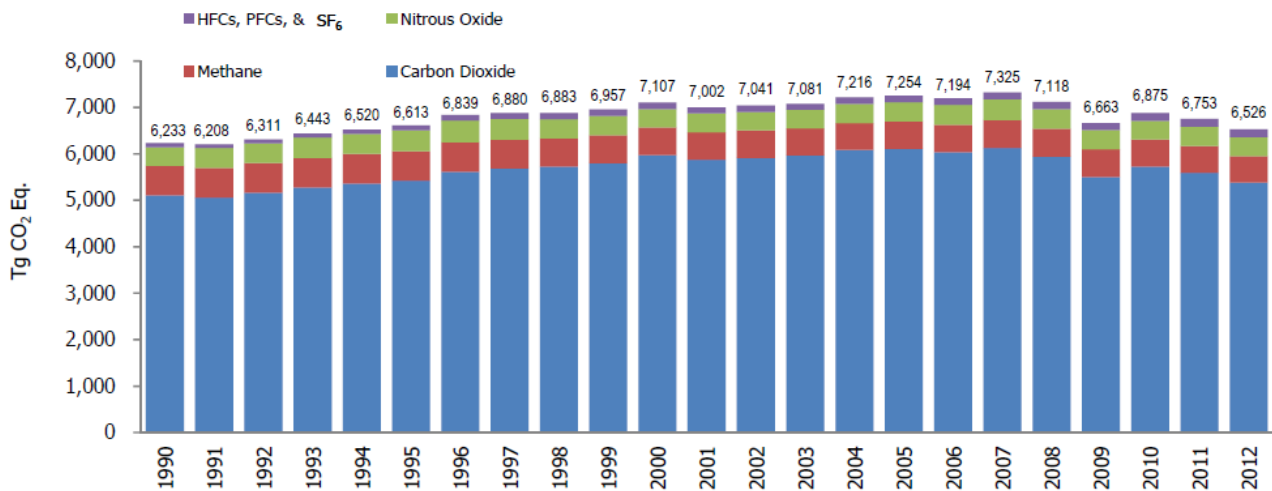


Figure 2-2: Annual Percent Change in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions

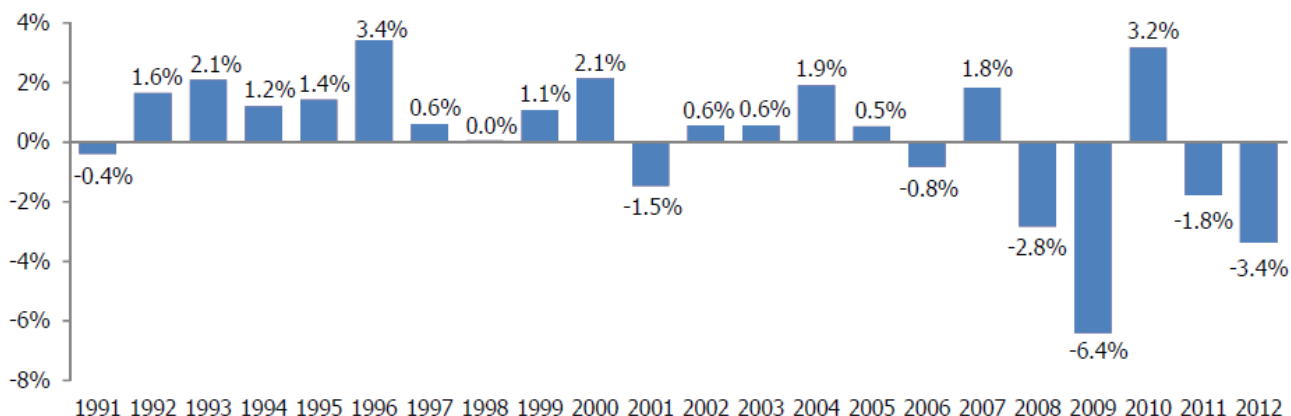
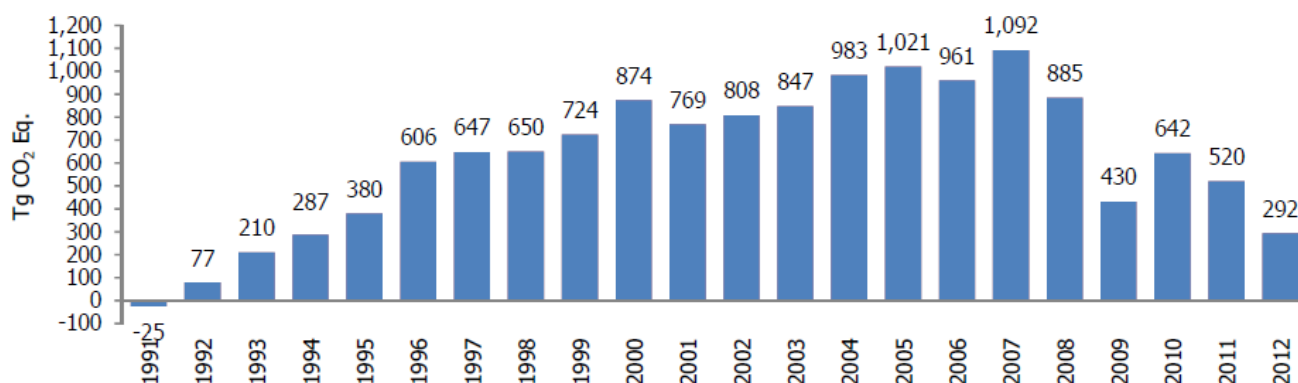


Figure 2-3: Cumulative Change in Annual U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Relative to 1990



As the largest contributor to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions, carbon dioxide (CO₂) from fossil fuel combustion has accounted for approximately 78 percent of global warming potential (GWP) weighted emissions for the entire time series since 1990, from 76 percent of total GWP-weighted emissions in 1990 to 78 percent in 2012. Emissions from this source category grew by 6.9 percent (327.2 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2012 and were responsible for most of the increase in national emissions during this period. From 2011 to 2012, these emissions decreased by 3.8 percent (198.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.). Historically, changes in emissions from fossil fuel combustion have been the dominant factor affecting U.S. emission trends.

Changes in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are influenced by many long-term and short-term factors, including population and economic growth, energy price fluctuations, technological changes, and seasonal temperatures. On an annual basis, the overall consumption of fossil fuels in the United States fluctuates primarily in response to changes in general economic conditions, energy prices, weather, and the availability of non-fossil alternatives. For example, in a year with increased consumption of goods and services, low fuel prices, severe summer and winter weather conditions, nuclear plant closures, and lower precipitation feeding hydroelectric dams, there would likely be proportionally greater fossil fuel consumption than in a year with poor economic performance, high fuel prices, mild temperatures, and increased output from nuclear and hydroelectric plants.

In the longer-term, energy consumption patterns respond to changes that affect the scale of consumption (e.g., population, number of cars, and size of houses), the efficiency with which energy is used in equipment (e.g., cars, power plants, steel mills, and light bulbs) and behavioral choices (e.g., walking, bicycling, or telecommuting to work instead of driving).

Energy-related CO₂ emissions also depend on the type of fuel or energy consumed and its carbon (C) intensity. Producing a unit of heat or electricity using natural gas instead of coal, for example, can reduce the CO₂ emissions because of the lower C content of natural gas.

A brief discussion of the year to year variability in fuel combustion emissions is provided below, beginning with 2008.

From 2008 to 2009, CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion emissions experienced a decrease of 6.6 percent, the greatest decrease of any year over the course of the twenty three-year period from 1990 to 2012. Various factors contributed to this decrease in emissions. The continued economic downturn resulted in a 2.8 percent decrease in GDP, decreased industrial production and manufacturing output, and a decrease in energy consumption across all sectors. In 2009, the price of coal used to generate electricity increased, while the price of natural gas used to generate electricity decreased significantly. As a result, natural gas was used for a greater share of electricity generation in 2009 than 2008, and coal was used for a smaller share. The fuel switching from coal to natural gas and additional electricity generation from other energy sources in 2009, which included a 6.3 percent increase in hydropower generation from the previous year, resulted in a decrease in carbon intensity, and in turn, a decrease in emissions from electricity generation. From 2008 to 2009, industrial sector emissions decreased significantly as a result of a decrease in output from energy-intensive industries, namely in nonmetallic mineral and primary metal industries. The residential and commercial sectors only experienced minor decreases in emissions as summer and winter weather conditions were less energy-intensive from 2008 to 2009, and the price of electricity only increased slightly. Heating degree days decreased slightly and cooling degree days decreased by 3.5 percent from 2008 to 2009.

From 2009 to 2010, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion increased by 3.4 percent, which represents one of the largest annual increases in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion for the twenty three-year period from 1990 to 2012.⁴⁸ This increase is primarily due to an increase in economic output 2009 to 2010, and increased industrial production and manufacturing output (FRB 2013). Carbon dioxide emissions from fossil fuel combustion in the industrial sector increased by 6.6 percent, including increased emissions from the combustion of fuel oil, natural gas and coal. Overall, coal consumption increased by 5.8 percent, the largest annual increase in coal consumption for the twenty three-year period between 1990 and 2012. In 2010, weather conditions remained fairly constant in the winter and were much hotter in the summer compared to 2009, as heating degree days decreased slightly by 0.5 percent and cooling degree days increased by 16.8 percent to their highest levels in the twenty three-year period from 1990 to 2012. As a result of the more energy-intensive summer weather conditions, electricity sales to the residential and commercial end-use sectors in 2010 increased approximately 6.0 percent and 1.8 percent, respectively.

From 2010 to 2011, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion decreased by 2.5 percent. This decrease is a result of multiple factors including: (1) a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels consumed to generate electricity due to a decrease in coal consumption, with increased natural gas consumption and a significant increase in hydropower used; (2) a decrease in transportation-related energy consumption due to higher fuel costs, improvements in fuel efficiency, and a reduction in miles traveled; and (3) relatively mild winter conditions resulting in an overall decrease in energy demand in most sectors. Changing fuel prices played a role in the decreasing emissions. A significant increase in the price of motor gasoline in the transportation sector was a major factor leading to a decrease in energy consumption by 1.0 percent. In addition, an increase in the price of coal and a concurrent decrease in natural gas prices led to a 5.7 percent decrease and a 2.5 percent increase in fuel consumption of these fuels by electric generators. This change in fuel prices also reduced the carbon intensity of fuels used to produce electricity in 2011, further contributing to the decrease in fossil fuel combustion emissions.

From 2011 to 2012, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion decreased by 3.8 percent, with emissions from fossil fuel combustion at their lowest level since 1995. This decrease from 2011 to 2012 is primarily a result of the decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels used to generate electricity due to a slight increase in the price of coal, and a significant decrease in the price of natural gas. The consumption of coal used to generate electricity decreased by 12.3 percent, while consumption of natural gas for electricity generation increased by 20.4 percent. Also, emissions declined in the transportation sector largely due to a small increase in fuel efficiency across different transportation modes and limited new demand for passenger transportation. In 2012, weather conditions remained fairly constant in the summer and were much warmer in the winter compared to 2011, as cooling degree days only increased by 2.2 percent while heating degree days decreased 12.8 percent. This decrease in heating degree days resulted in a decreased demand for heating fuel in the residential and commercial sector, which had a decrease in natural gas consumption of 11.7 and 8.0 percent, respectively.

⁴⁸ This increase also represents the largest absolute and percentage increase since 1988 (EIA 2011a).

Overall, from 1990 to 2012, total emissions of CO₂ increased by 274.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5.4 percent), while total emissions of CH₄ decreased by 68.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (10.8 percent), and total emissions of N₂O increased 11.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.9 percent). During the same period, aggregate weighted emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ rose by 74.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (83.0 percent). Despite being emitted in smaller quantities relative to the other principal greenhouse gases, emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are significant because many of them have extremely high GWPs and, in the cases of PFCs and SF₆, long atmospheric lifetimes. Conversely, U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were partly offset by C sequestration in managed forests, trees in urban areas, agricultural soils, and landfilled yard trimmings. These were estimated to offset 15.0 percent of total emissions in 2012.

Table 2-1 summarizes emissions and sinks from all U.S. anthropogenic sources in weighted units of Tg CO₂ Eq., while unweighted gas emissions and sinks in gigagrams (Gg) are provided in Table 2-2.

Table 2-1: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	5,108.7	6,112.2	5,936.9	5,506.1	5,722.3	5,592.2	5,383.2
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7
Transportation	1,494.0	1,891.7	1,816.5	1,747.7	1,765.0	1,747.9	1,739.5
Industrial	845.1	827.6	804.1	727.5	775.6	768.7	774.2
Residential	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9
Commercial	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4
U.S. Territories	27.9	50.0	41.0	43.8	49.6	49.6	49.6
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	120.8	141.0	128.0	108.1	120.8	117.3	110.3
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke							
Production	99.8	66.7	66.8	43.0	55.7	60.0	54.3
Natural Gas Systems	37.7	30.0	32.7	32.2	32.4	35.1	35.2
Cement Production	33.3	45.9	41.2	29.4	31.3	32.0	35.1
Lime Production	11.4	14.0	14.0	10.9	12.8	13.5	13.3
Incineration of Waste	8.0	12.5	11.9	11.7	12.0	12.1	12.2
Ammonia Production	13.0	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.2	9.4	9.4
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	4.9	6.3	5.9	7.6	9.6	9.3	8.0
Cropland Remaining Cropland	7.1	7.9	8.6	7.2	8.6	7.9	7.4
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.0	5.2
Petrochemical Production	3.4	4.3	3.6	2.8	3.5	3.5	3.5
Aluminum Production	6.8	4.1	4.5	3.0	2.7	3.3	3.4
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
Zinc Production	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.4
Glass Production	1.5	1.9	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.2
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Petroleum Systems	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
<i>Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sink)^a</i>	<i>(831.1)</i>	<i>(1,030.7)</i>	<i>(981.0)</i>	<i>(961.6)</i>	<i>(968.0)</i>	<i>(980.3)</i>	<i>(979.3)</i>
<i>Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption^b</i>	<i>219.4</i>	<i>229.8</i>	<i>254.7</i>	<i>250.5</i>	<i>265.1</i>	<i>268.1</i>	<i>266.8</i>
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>103.5</i>	<i>113.1</i>	<i>114.3</i>	<i>106.4</i>	<i>117.0</i>	<i>111.7</i>	<i>105.8</i>
CH₄	635.7	585.7	606.0	596.5	585.5	578.3	567.3
Enteric Fermentation	137.9	142.5	147.0	146.1	144.9	143.0	141.0
Natural Gas Systems	156.4	152.0	151.6	142.9	134.7	133.2	129.9
Landfills	147.8	112.1	114.3	115.3	109.9	107.4	102.8
Coal Mining	81.1	53.6	63.5	67.1	69.2	59.8	55.8
Manure Management	31.5	47.6	51.5	50.5	51.8	52.0	52.9
Petroleum Systems	35.8	28.8	28.8	29.1	29.5	30.5	31.7
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	2.5	8.1	8.7	5.8	4.7	14.0	15.3
Wastewater Treatment	13.2	13.3	13.3	13.1	13.0	12.8	12.8

Rice Cultivation	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.9	9.3	7.1	7.4
Stationary Combustion	7.5	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.4	6.3	5.7
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.7
Petrochemical Production	2.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.1
Mobile Combustion	4.6	2.4	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
Composting	0.3	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke							
Production	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Ferroalloy Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>
N₂O	398.6	415.8	423.3	412.2	409.3	417.2	410.1
Agricultural Soil Management	282.1	297.3	319.0	316.4	310.1	307.8	306.6
Stationary Combustion	12.3	20.6	21.1	20.8	22.5	21.6	22.0
Manure Management	14.4	17.1	17.8	17.7	17.8	18.0	18.0
Mobile Combustion	44.0	36.9	25.5	22.7	20.7	18.5	16.5
Nitric Acid Production	18.2	16.9	16.9	14.0	16.7	15.8	15.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	2.1	7.0	7.5	5.1	4.2	11.8	12.8
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	7.4	2.6	2.8	4.4	10.6	5.8
Wastewater Treatment	3.5	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
N ₂ O from Product Uses	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Composting	0.4	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8
Settlements Remaining Settlements	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.0</i>
HFCs	36.9	119.8	136.0	135.1	144.0	148.6	151.2
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^d	0.3	103.8	122.2	129.6	137.5	141.5	146.8
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	15.8	13.6	5.4	6.4	6.9	4.3
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
PFCs	20.6	5.6	5.1	3.3	3.8	6.0	5.4
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.2	2.6	2.4	1.7	2.2	3.0	2.9
Aluminum Production	18.4	3.0	2.7	1.6	1.6	2.9	2.5
SF₆	32.6	14.7	10.7	9.6	9.8	10.8	8.4
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	26.7	11.0	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.0
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	2.9	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.9	1.7
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.7
Total	6,233.2	7,253.8	7,118.1	6,662.9	6,874.7	6,753.0	6,525.6
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,402.1	6,223.1	6,137.1	5,701.2	5,906.7	5,772.7	5,546.3

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

^b Emissions from Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption are not included specifically in summing energy sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry.

^c Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

^d Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 2-2: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	5,108,723	6,112,227	5,936,945	5,506,116	5,722,330	5,592,162	5,383,214
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,745,067	5,752,860	5,593,424	5,225,717	5,404,903	5,271,097	5,072,271
Electricity Generation	1,820,818	2,402,143	2,360,920	2,146,415	2,259,190	2,158,481	2,022,679
Transportation	1,493,968	1,891,744	1,816,472	1,747,674	1,765,025	1,747,879	1,739,536
Industrial	845,089	827,600	804,121	727,505	775,574	768,715	774,161
Residential	338,347	357,903	346,237	336,363	334,828	324,928	288,883
Commercial	218,963	223,511	224,715	223,941	220,669	221,519	197,431
U.S. Territories	27,882	49,960	40,959	43,818	49,615	49,576	49,582
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	120,842	140,997	127,997	108,115	120,827	117,313	110,313
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99,781	66,666	66,822	43,029	55,746	60,008	54,319
Natural Gas Systems	37,705	29,988	32,707	32,234	32,362	35,082	35,232
Cement Production	33,278	45,910	41,161	29,432	31,256	32,010	35,051
Lime Production	11,420	13,990	13,992	10,914	12,834	13,471	13,318
Incineration of Waste	7,972	12,454	11,867	11,672	12,033	12,142	12,195
Ammonia Production	13,047	9,196	8,414	8,454	9,188	9,428	9,366
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	4,907	6,339	5,885	7,583	9,560	9,335	7,997
Cropland Remaining Cropland	7,084	7,854	8,638	7,224	8,563	7,864	7,381
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	3,784	3,653	4,065	3,427	4,728	3,999	5,243
Petrochemical Production	3,429	4,330	3,572	2,833	3,455	3,505	3,505
Aluminum Production	6,831	4,142	4,477	3,009	2,722	3,292	3,439
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	2,741	2,868	2,865	2,488	2,612	2,624	2,672
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1,416	1,321	1,780	1,784	2,253	1,843	1,815
Titanium Dioxide Production	1,195	1,755	1,809	1,648	1,769	1,729	1,742
Ferroalloy Production	2,152	1,392	1,599	1,469	1,663	1,663	1,663
Zinc Production	632	1,030	1,159	943	1,182	1,286	1,422
Glass Production	1,535	1,928	1,523	1,045	1,481	1,299	1,247
Phosphoric Acid Production	1,586	1,396	1,177	1,016	1,130	1,199	1,101
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	1,033	1,079	992	1,089	1,010	919	830
Lead Production	516	553	547	525	542	538	527
Petroleum Systems	394	306	300	320	332	347	406
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	375	219	175	145	181	170	158
<i>Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sink)^a</i>	<i>(831,108)</i>	<i>(1,030,713)</i>	<i>(981,016)</i>	<i>(961,619)</i>	<i>(968,010)</i>	<i>(980,310)</i>	<i>(979,305)</i>
<i>Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption^b</i>	<i>219,413</i>	<i>229,844</i>	<i>254,672</i>	<i>250,491</i>	<i>265,110</i>	<i>268,064</i>	<i>266,831</i>
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	<i>103,463</i>	<i>113,139</i>	<i>114,342</i>	<i>106,410</i>	<i>116,992</i>	<i>111,660</i>	<i>105,805</i>
CH₄	30,272	27,893	28,857	28,406	27,882	27,538	27,013
Enteric Fermentation	6,566	6,785	6,999	6,956	6,898	6,809	6,714
Natural Gas Systems	7,450	7,240	7,218	6,806	6,413	6,343	6,186
Landfills	7,036	5,339	5,444	5,492	5,234	5,112	4,897
Coal Mining	3,860	2,552	3,026	3,194	3,293	2,849	2,658
Manure Management	1,499	2,265	2,452	2,403	2,466	2,478	2,519
Petroleum Systems	1,704	1,374	1,372	1,388	1,407	1,453	1,511
Forest Land Remaining Forest	119	386	416	275	225	664	727
Wastewater Treatment	626	635	635	623	619	611	608
Rice Cultivation	366	358	370	378	444	339	351
Stationary Combustion	355	315	317	316	304	302	271
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	288	264	253	244	237	231	226
Petrochemical Production	108	150	137	138	146	148	147
Mobile Combustion	218	113	92	87	85	82	81

Composting	15	75	80	75	73	75	76
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	46	34	31	17	25	28	29
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	13	9	13	12	11	12	12
Ferroalloy Production	1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	7	5	6	5	6	5	4
N₂O	1,286	1,341	1,365	1,330	1,320	1,346	1,323
Agricultural Soil Management	910	959	1,029	1,021	1,000	993	989
Stationary Combustion	40	66	68	67	73	70	71
Manure Management	46	55	57	57	57	58	58
Mobile Combustion	142	119	82	73	67	60	53
Nitric Acid Production	59	55	54	45	54	51	49
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	7	22	24	16	14	38	41
Adipic Acid Production	51	24	8	9	14	34	19
Wastewater Treatment	11	14	15	16	16	16	16
N ₂ O from Product Uses	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
Composting	1	6	6	6	5	6	6
Settlements Remaining Settlements	3	5	5	5	5	5	5
Incineration of Waste	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^c</i>	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
HFCs	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^d	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
HCFC-22 Production	3	1	1	+	1	1	+
Semiconductor Manufacture	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
PFCs	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Semiconductor Manufacture	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Aluminum Production	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
SF₆	1	1	+	+	+	+	+
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Magnesium Production and Processing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Semiconductor Manufacture	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

M Mixture of multiple gases

^a The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

^b Emissions from Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption are not included specifically in summing energy sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

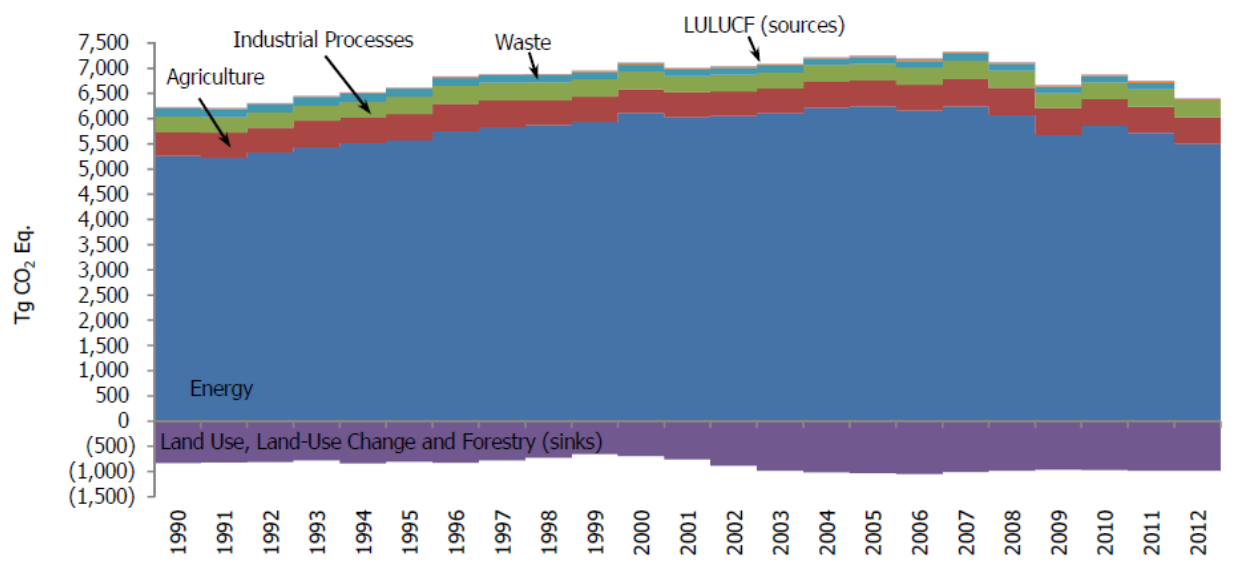
^c Emissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

^d Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Emissions of all gases can be summed from each source category into a set of six sectors defined by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). Over the twenty three-year period of 1990 to 2012, total emissions in the Energy, Industrial Processes, and Agriculture sectors grew by 238.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.5 percent), 18.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5.8 percent), and 52.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (11.0 percent), respectively. Emissions from the Waste and Solvent and Other Product Use sectors decreased by 41.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (24.9 percent) and less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.4 percent), respectively. Over the same period, estimates of net C sequestration in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry sector increased by 124.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (15.2 percent).

Figure 2-4: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector



Note: Relatively smaller amounts of GWP-weighted emissions are also emitted from the Solvent and Other Product Use sectors.

Table 2-3: Recent Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks by Chapter/IPCC Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Chapter/IPCC Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Energy	5,260.1	6,243.5	6,071.1	5,674.6	5,860.6	5,712.9	5,498.9
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3
Natural Gas Systems	194.2	182.0	184.3	175.2	167.0	168.3	165.1
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	120.8	141.0	128.0	108.1	120.8	117.3	110.3
Coal Mining	81.1	53.6	63.5	67.1	69.2	59.8	55.8
Petroleum Systems	36.2	29.1	29.1	29.5	29.9	30.9	32.1
Stationary Combustion	19.7	27.2	27.8	27.4	28.9	28.0	27.7
Mobile Combustion	48.6	39.3	27.4	24.5	22.5	20.2	18.2
Incineration of Waste	8.4	12.9	12.2	12.0	12.4	12.5	12.6
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.7
Industrial Processes	316.1	334.9	335.9	287.8	324.6	342.9	334.4
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	0.3	103.8	122.2	129.6	137.5	141.5	146.8
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	100.7	67.4	67.5	43.4	56.3	60.6	54.9
Cement Production	33.3	45.9	41.2	29.4	31.3	32.0	35.1
Nitric Acid Production	18.2	16.9	16.9	14.0	16.7	15.8	15.3
Lime Production	11.4	14.0	14.0	10.9	12.8	13.5	13.3
Ammonia Production	13.0	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.2	9.4	9.4
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	4.9	6.3	5.9	7.6	9.6	9.3	8.0
Petrochemical Production	5.7	7.5	6.5	5.7	6.5	6.6	6.6
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	26.7	11.0	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.0
Aluminum Production	25.3	7.1	7.2	4.6	4.3	6.2	5.9
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	7.4	2.6	2.8	4.4	10.6	5.8
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.0	5.2
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	15.8	13.6	5.4	6.4	6.9	4.3
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.9	3.5	3.0	2.2	2.8	3.9	3.7
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7

Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	2.9	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.9	1.7
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
Zinc Production	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.4
Glass Production	1.5	1.9	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.2
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Solvent and Other Product Use	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Agriculture	473.9	512.2	543.4	538.9	534.2	528.3	526.3
Agricultural Soil Management	282.1	297.3	319.0	316.4	310.1	307.8	306.6
Enteric Fermentation	137.9	142.5	147.0	146.1	144.9	143.0	141.0
Manure Management	45.8	64.6	69.3	68.2	69.6	70.0	70.9
Rice Cultivation	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.9	9.3	7.1	7.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4
Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Emissions)	13.7	25.5	27.3	20.5	20.0	36.0	37.8
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	4.6	15.1	16.2	10.8	8.9	25.7	28.1
Cropland Remaining Cropland	7.1	7.9	8.6	7.2	8.6	7.9	7.4
Settlements Remaining Settlements	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
Waste	165.0	133.2	136.0	136.5	131.1	128.5	124.0
Landfills	147.8	112.1	114.3	115.3	109.9	107.4	102.8
Wastewater Treatment	16.6	17.8	18.1	17.9	17.9	17.8	17.8
Composting	0.7	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.3
Total Emissions	6,233.2	7,253.8	7,118.1	6,662.9	6,874.7	6,753.0	6,525.6
<i>Net CO₂ Flux From Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry (Sinks)^a</i>	<i>(831.1)</i>	<i>(1,030.7)</i>	<i>(981.0)</i>	<i>(961.6)</i>	<i>(968.0)</i>	<i>(980.3)</i>	<i>(979.3)</i>
Net Emissions (Sources and Sinks)	5,402.1	6,223.1	6,137.1	5,701.2	5,906.7	5,772.7	5,546.3

^a The net CO₂ flux total includes both emissions and sequestration, and constitutes a sink in the United States. Sinks are only included in net emissions total. Please refer to Table 2-9 for a breakout by source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration.

Energy

Energy-related activities, primarily fossil fuel combustion, accounted for the vast majority of U.S. CO₂ emissions for the period of 1990 through 2012. In 2012, approximately 82 percent of the energy consumed in the United States (on a Btu basis) was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels. The remaining 18 percent came from other energy sources such as hydropower, biomass, nuclear, wind, and solar energy (see Figure 2-5 and Figure 2-6). A discussion of specific trends related to CO₂ as well as other greenhouse gas emissions from energy consumption is presented in the Energy chapter. Energy-related activities are also responsible for CH₄ and N₂O emissions (40 percent and 9 percent of total U.S. emissions of each gas, respectively). Table 2-4 presents greenhouse gas emissions from the Energy chapter, by source and gas.

Figure 2-5: 2012 Energy Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

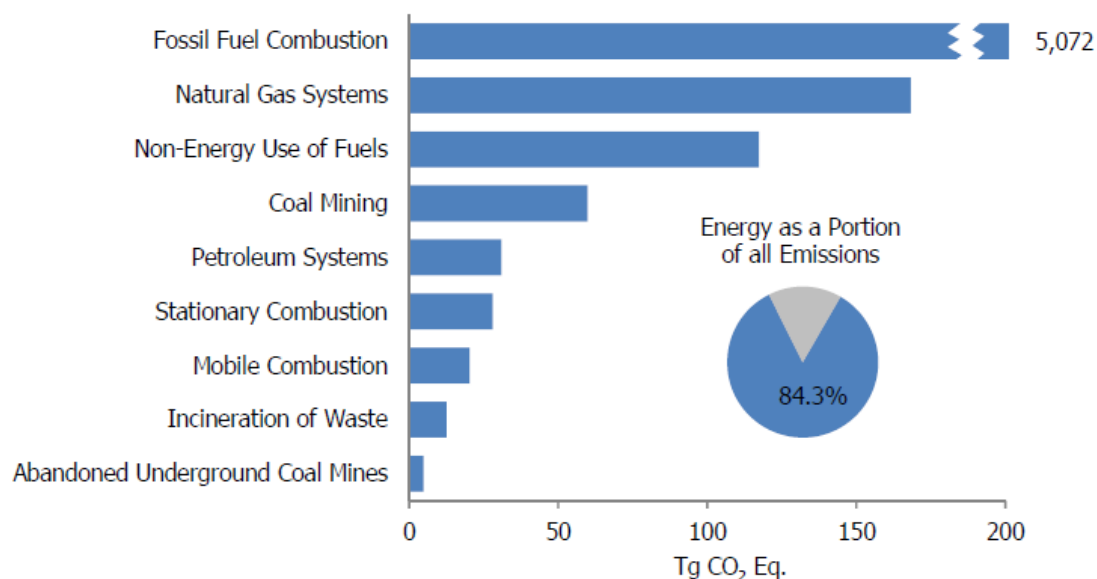


Figure 2-6: 2012 U.S. Fossil Carbon Flows (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

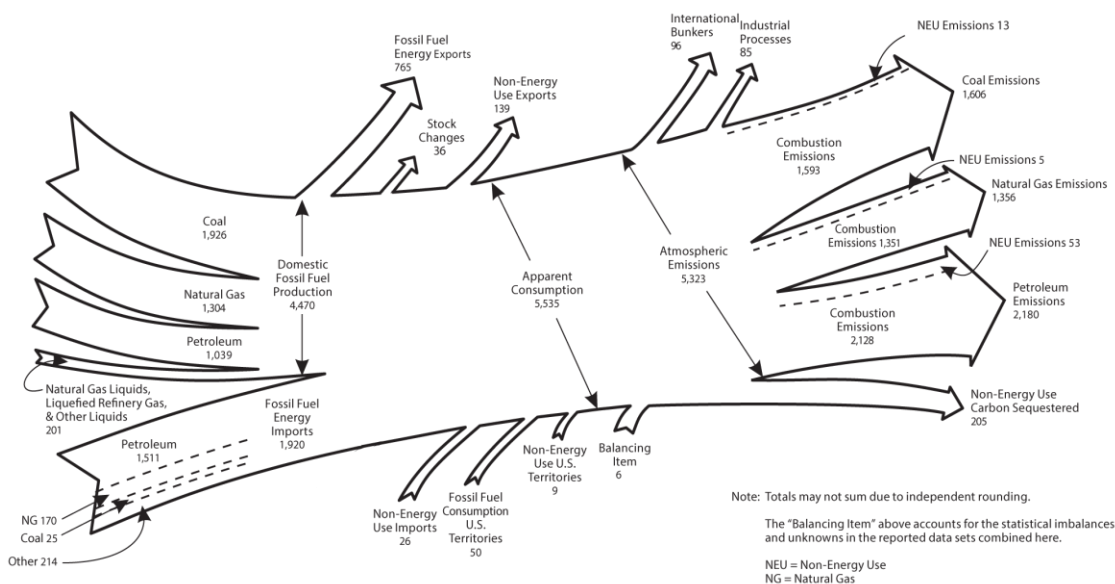


Table 2-4: Emissions from Energy (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	4,912.0	5,936.6	5,766.3	5,378.1	5,570.5	5,436.0	5,230.4
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7
Transportation	1,494.0	1,891.7	1,816.5	1,747.7	1,765.0	1,747.9	1,739.5
Industrial	845.1	827.6	804.1	727.5	775.6	768.7	774.2
Residential	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9
Commercial	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4
U.S. Territories	27.9	50.0	41.0	43.8	49.6	49.6	49.6
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	120.8	141.0	128.0	108.1	120.8	117.3	110.3
Natural Gas Systems	37.7	30.0	32.7	32.2	32.4	35.1	35.2

Incineration of Waste	8.0	12.5	11.9	11.7	12.0	12.1	12.2
Petroleum Systems	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
<i>Biomass - Wood^a</i>	215.2	206.9	199.9	188.2	192.5	195.2	194.0
<i>International Bunker Fuels^b</i>	103.5	113.1	114.3	106.4	117.0	111.7	105.8
<i>Biomass - Ethanol^a</i>	4.2	22.9	54.7	62.3	72.6	72.9	72.8
CH₄	291.4	249.0	257.8	252.8	246.5	236.5	229.6
Natural Gas Systems	156.4	152.0	151.6	142.9	134.7	133.2	129.9
Coal Mining	81.1	53.6	63.5	67.1	69.2	59.8	55.8
Petroleum Systems	35.8	28.8	28.8	29.1	29.5	30.5	31.7
Stationary Combustion	7.5	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.4	6.3	5.7
Abandoned Underground Coal							
Mines	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.7
Mobile Combustion	4.6	2.4	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^b</i>	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N₂O	56.8	57.9	47.0	43.8	43.6	40.5	38.9
Stationary Combustion	12.3	20.6	21.1	20.8	22.5	21.6	22.0
Mobile Combustion	44.0	36.9	25.5	22.7	20.7	18.5	16.5
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
<i>International Bunker Fuels^b</i>	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0
Total	5,260.1	6,243.5	6,071.1	5,674.6	5,860.6	5,712.9	5,498.9

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^aEmissions from Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption are not included specifically in summing energy sector totals. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

^bEmissions from International Bunker Fuels are not included in totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Carbon dioxide emissions from fossil fuel combustion are presented in Table 2-5 based on the underlying U.S. energy consumer data collected by EIA. Estimates of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are calculated from these EIA “end-use sectors” based on total consumption and appropriate fuel properties (any additional analysis and refinement of the EIA data is further explained in the Energy chapter of this report). EIA’s fuel consumption data for the electric power sector comprises electricity-only and combined-heat-and-power (CHP) plants within the NAICS 22 category whose primary business is to sell electricity, or electricity and heat, to the public (nonutility power producers can be included in this sector as long as they meet they electric power sector definition). EIA statistics for the industrial sector include fossil fuel consumption that occurs in the fields of manufacturing, agriculture, mining, and construction. EIA’s fuel consumption data for the transportation sector consists of all vehicles whose primary purpose is transporting people and/or goods from one physical location to another. EIA’s fuel consumption data for the industrial sector consists of all facilities and equipment used for producing, processing, or assembling goods (EIA includes generators that produce electricity and/or useful thermal output primarily to support on-site industrial activities in this sector). EIA’s fuel consumption data for the residential sector consists of living quarters for private households. EIA’s fuel consumption data for the commercial sector consists of service-providing facilities and equipment from private and public organizations and businesses (EIA includes generators that produce electricity and/or useful thermal output primarily to support the activities at commercial establishments in this sector). Table 2-5 and Figure 2-7 summarize CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by end-use sector. Figure 2-8 further describes the total emissions from fossil fuel combustion, separated by end-use sector, including CH₄, and N₂O in addition to CO₂.

Table 2-5: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by End-Use Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Transportation	1,497.0	1,896.5	1,821.2	1,752.2	1,769.5	1,752.1	1,743.4
Combustion	1,494.0	1,891.7	1,816.5	1,747.7	1,765.0	1,747.9	1,739.5
Electricity	3.0	4.7	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.3	3.9
Industrial	1,531.8	1,564.6	1,501.4	1,329.5	1,416.6	1,393.6	1,367.1
Combustion	845.1	827.6	804.1	727.5	775.6	768.7	774.2
Electricity	686.7	737.0	697.3	602.0	641.1	624.9	592.9
Residential	931.4	1,214.7	1,189.2	1,122.9	1,175.2	1,115.9	1,014.3
Combustion	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9
Electricity	593.0	856.7	842.9	786.5	840.4	791.0	725.5
Commercial	757.0	1,027.2	1,040.8	977.4	993.9	959.8	897.9
Combustion	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4
Electricity	538.0	803.7	816.0	753.5	773.3	738.3	700.4
U.S. Territories^a	27.9	50.0	41.0	43.8	49.6	49.6	49.6
Total	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Combustion-related emissions from electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate national electricity consumption by each end-use sector.

^a Fuel consumption by U.S. Territories (i.e., American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands) is included in this report.

Figure 2-7: 2012 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type

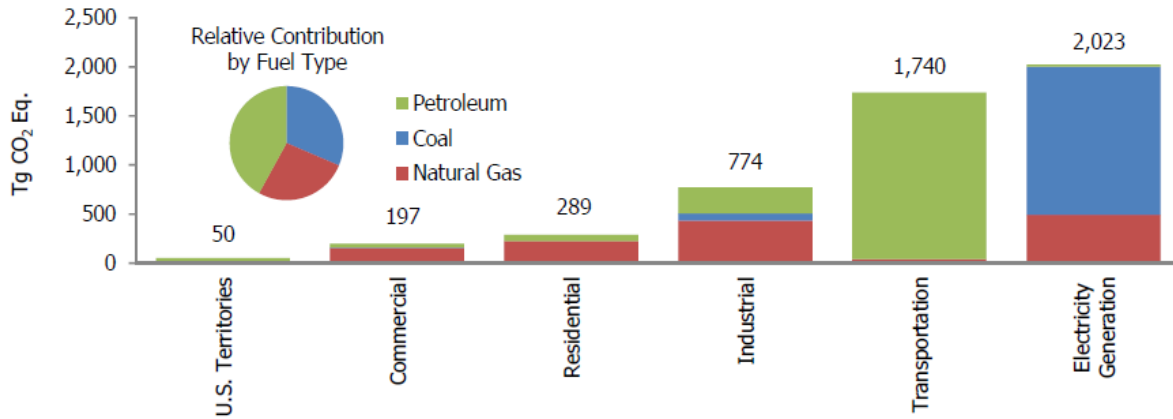
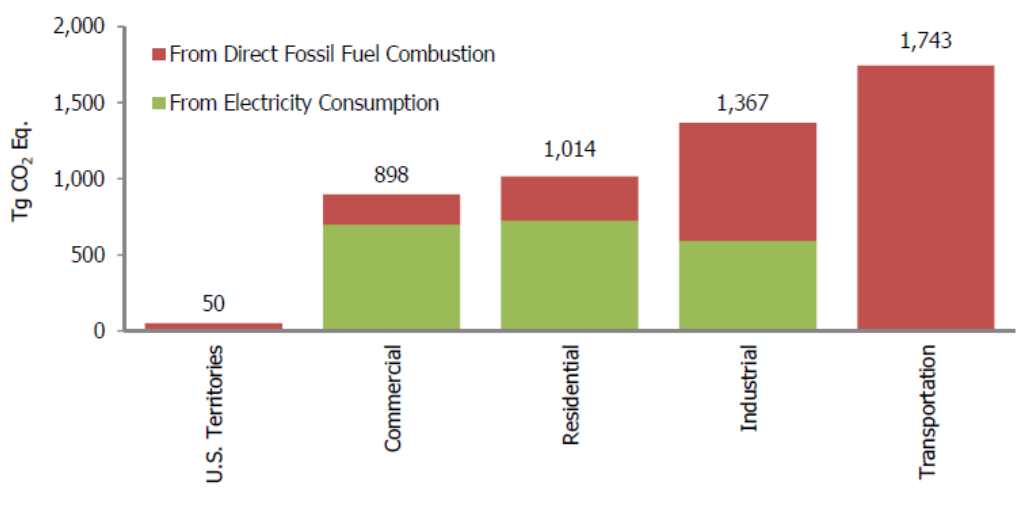


Figure 2-8: 2012 End-Use Sector Emissions of CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion



The main driver of emissions in the Energy sector is CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion. Electricity generation is the largest emitter of CO₂, and electricity generators consumed 35 percent of U.S. energy from fossil fuels and emitted 40 percent of the CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion in 2012. Electricity generation emissions can also be allocated to the end-use sectors that are consuming that electricity, as presented in Table 2-5. The transportation end-use sector accounted for 1,743.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012 or approximately 34 percent of total CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. The industrial end-use sector accounted for 27 percent of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. The residential and commercial end-use sectors accounted for 20 and 18 percent, respectively, of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. Both of these end-use sectors were heavily reliant on electricity for meeting energy needs, with electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances contributing 72 and 78 percent of emissions from the residential and commercial end-use sectors, respectively. Significant trends in emissions from energy source categories over the twenty three-year period from 1990 through 2012 included the following:

- Total CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion increased from 4,745.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 5,072.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012—a 6.9 percent total increase over the twenty three-year period. From 2011 to 2012, these emissions decreased by 198.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3.8 percent).
- CH₄ emissions from natural gas systems were the second largest anthropogenic source of CH₄ emissions in the United States with 129.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. emitted into the atmosphere in 2012; emissions have decreased by 26.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (17.0 percent) since 1990.
- CO₂ emissions from non-energy use of fossil fuels decreased by 10.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (8.7 percent) from 1990 through 2012. Emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels were 110.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, which constituted 2.0 percent of total national CO₂ emissions.
- N₂O emissions from stationary combustion increased by 9.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (79.3 percent) from 1990 through 2012. N₂O emissions from this source increased primarily as a result of an increase in the number of coal fluidized bed boilers in the electric power sector.
- CO₂ emissions from incineration of waste (12.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012) increased by 4.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (53.0 percent) from 1990 through 2012, as the volume of plastics and other fossil carbon-containing materials in municipal solid waste grew.

The decrease in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2012 was a result of multiple factors including: (1) a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels consumed by power producers to generate electricity due to significant decrease in the price of natural gas compared to the slight increase in the price of coal; (2) a decrease in transportation sector emissions attributed to a small increase in fuel efficiency across different transportation modes and limited new demand for passenger transportation; and (3) much warmer winter conditions resulting in a decreased demand for heating fuel in the residential and commercial sectors.

Industrial Processes

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as the by-products of many non-energy-related industrial activities. For example, industrial processes can chemically transform raw materials, which often release waste gases such as CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O. These processes include iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production, cement production, ammonia production, urea consumption, lime production, other process uses of carbonates (e.g., flux stone, flue gas desulfurization, and glass manufacturing), soda ash production and consumption, titanium dioxide production, phosphoric acid production, ferroalloy production, CO₂ consumption, silicon carbide production and consumption, aluminum production, petrochemical production, nitric acid production, adipic acid production, lead production, and zinc production (see Figure 2-9). Industrial processes also release HFCs, PFCs and SF₆. In addition to their use as ODS substitutes, HFCs, PFCs, SF₆, and other fluorinated compounds are employed and emitted by a number of other industrial sources in the United States. These industries include aluminum production, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor manufacture, electric power transmission and distribution, and magnesium metal production and processing. Table 2-6 presents greenhouse gas emissions from industrial processes by source category.

Figure 2-9: 2012 Industrial Processes Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

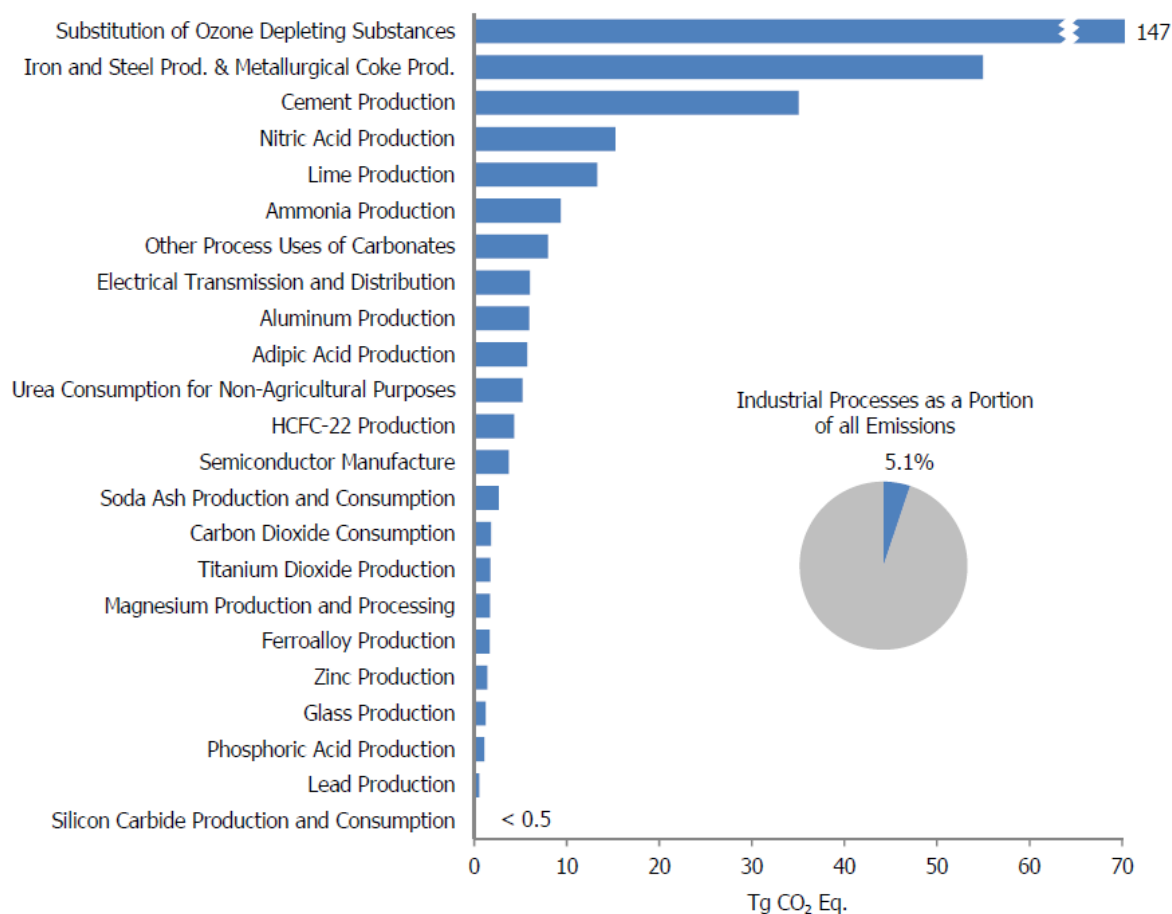


Table 2-6: Emissions from Industrial Processes (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	188.6	166.7	161.0	119.7	142.3	147.4	144.6
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99.8	66.7	66.8	43.0	55.7	60.0	54.3

<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	97.3	64.6	64.5	42.1	53.7	58.6	53.8
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	2.5	2.0	2.3	1.0	2.1	1.4	0.5
Cement Production	33.3	45.9	41.2	29.4	31.3	32.0	35.1
Lime Production	11.4	14.0	14.0	10.9	12.8	13.5	13.3
Ammonia Production	13.0	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.2	9.4	9.4
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	4.9	6.3	5.9	7.6	9.6	9.3	8.0
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.0	5.2
Petrochemical Production	3.4	4.3	3.6	2.8	3.5	3.5	3.5
Aluminum Production	6.8	4.1	4.5	3.0	2.7	3.3	3.4
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
Zinc Production	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.4
Glass Production	1.5	1.9	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.2
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
CH₄	3.3	3.9	3.6	3.3	3.6	3.7	3.7
Petrochemical Production	2.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.1
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Ferroalloy Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	34.0	24.4	19.4	16.8	21.1	26.5	21.0
Nitric Acid Production	18.2	16.9	16.9	14.0	16.7	15.8	15.3
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	7.4	2.6	2.8	4.4	10.6	5.8
HFCs	36.9	119.8	136.0	135.1	144.0	148.6	151.2
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^a	0.3	103.8	122.2	129.6	137.5	141.5	146.8
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	15.8	13.6	5.4	6.4	6.9	4.3
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
PFCs	20.6	5.6	5.1	3.3	3.8	6.0	5.4
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.2	2.6	2.4	1.7	2.2	3.0	2.9
Aluminum Production	18.4	3.0	2.7	1.6	1.6	2.9	2.5
SF₆	32.6	14.7	10.7	9.6	9.8	10.8	8.4
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	26.7	11.0	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.0
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	2.9	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.9	1.7
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.7
Total	316.1	334.9	335.9	287.8	324.6	342.9	334.4

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Overall, emissions from the Industrial Processes sector increased by 5.8 percent from 1990 to 2012. Significant trends in emissions from industrial processes source categories over the twenty three-year period from 1990 through 2012 included the following:

- HFC emissions from ODS substitutes have been increasing from small amounts in 1990 to 146.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012. This increase results from efforts to phase out CFCs and other ODS' in the United States. In the short term, this trend is expected to continue, and will likely accelerate over the next decade as HCFCs—which are interim substitutes in many applications—are phased out under the provisions of the Copenhagen Amendments to the Montreal Protocol.
- Combined CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production decreased by 9.3 percent to 54.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. from 2011 to 2012, and have declined overall by 45.8 Tg CO₂

Eq. (45.5 percent) from 1990 through 2012, due to restructuring of the industry, technological improvements, and increased scrap steel utilization.

- CO₂ emissions from ammonia production (9.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012) decreased by 3.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (28.2 percent) since 1990. Ammonia production relies on natural gas as both a feedstock and a fuel, and as such, market fluctuations and volatility in natural gas prices affect the production of ammonia. Urea consumption for non-agricultural purposes (5.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012) increased by 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (38.6 percent) since 1990.
- N₂O emissions from adipic acid production were 5.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, and have decreased significantly since 1990 due to both the widespread installation of pollution control measures in the late 1990s and plant idling in the late 2000s. Emissions from adipic acid production have decreased by 63.6 percent since 1990 and by 67.2 percent since a peak in 1995.
- PFC emissions from aluminum production decreased by 86.4 percent (15.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2012, due to both industry emission reduction efforts and lower domestic aluminum production.

Solvent and Other Product Use

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as a by-product of various solvent and other product uses. In the United States, N₂O Emissions from Product Uses, the only source of greenhouse gas emissions from this sector, accounted for 4.4 Tg CO₂ Eq., or less than 0.1 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012 (see Table 2-7).

Table 2-7: N₂O Emissions from Solvent and Other Product Use (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
N ₂ O	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
N ₂ O from Product Uses	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Total	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4

In 2012, N₂O emissions from product uses constituted 1.1 percent of U.S. N₂O emissions. From 1990 to 2012, emissions from this source category decreased by 0.4 percent, though slight increases occurred in intermediate years.

Agriculture

Agricultural activities contribute directly to emissions of greenhouse gases through a variety of processes, including the following source categories: enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, rice cultivation, agricultural soil management, and field burning of agricultural residues.

In 2012, agricultural activities were responsible for emissions of 526.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., or 8.1 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. CH₄ and N₂O were the primary greenhouse gases emitted by agricultural activities. CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management represented about 24.9 percent and 9.3 percent of total CH₄ emissions from anthropogenic activities, respectively, in 2012. Agricultural soil management activities, such as fertilizer use and other cropping practices, were the largest source of U.S. N₂O emissions in 2012, accounting for 74.8 percent.

Figure 2-10: 2012 Agriculture Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources

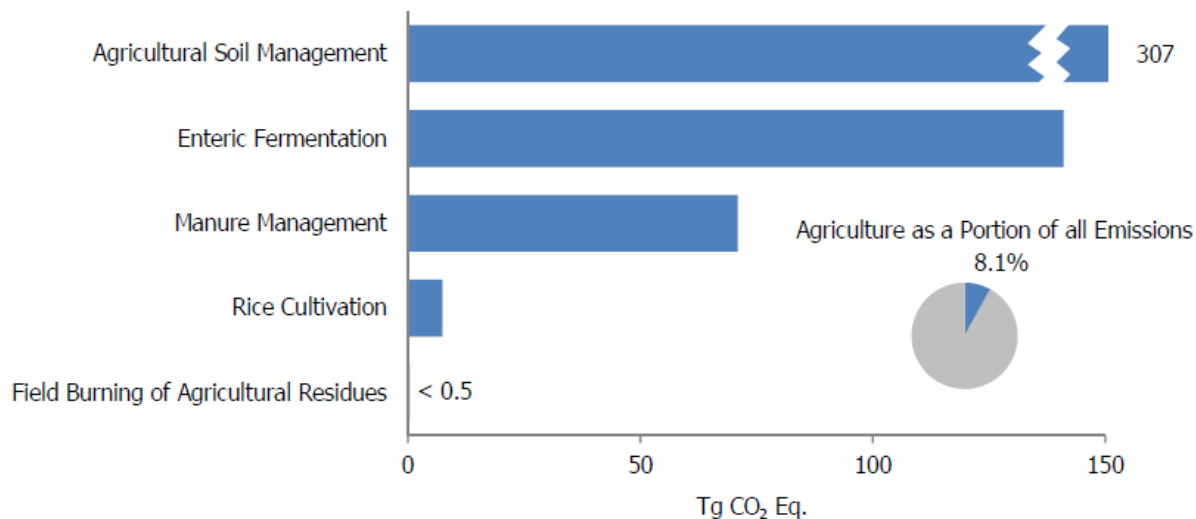


Table 2-8: Emissions from Agriculture (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	177.3	197.7	206.5	204.7	206.2	202.4	201.5
Enteric Fermentation	137.9	142.5	147.0	146.1	144.9	143.0	141.0
Manure Management	31.5	47.6	51.5	50.5	51.8	52.0	52.9
Rice Cultivation	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.9	9.3	7.1	7.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
N₂O	296.6	314.5	336.9	334.2	327.9	325.8	324.7
Agricultural Soil Management	282.1	297.3	319.0	316.4	310.1	307.8	306.6
Manure Management	14.4	17.1	17.8	17.7	17.8	18.0	18.0
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	473.9	512.2	543.4	538.9	534.2	528.3	526.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Some significant trends in U.S. emissions from Agriculture source categories include the following:

- Agricultural soils produced approximately 74.8 percent of N₂O emissions in the United States in 2012. Estimated emissions from this source in 2012 were 306.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. Annual N₂O emissions from agricultural soils fluctuated between 1990 and 2012, although overall emissions were 8.7 percent higher in 2012 than in 1990. Year-to-year fluctuations are largely a reflection of annual variation in weather patterns, synthetic fertilizer use, and crop production.
- Enteric fermentation was the largest source of CH₄ emissions in the United States in 2012, at 141.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. Generally, from 1990 to 1995 emissions increased and then decreased from 1996 to 2004. These trends were mainly due to fluctuations in beef cattle populations and increased digestibility of feed for feedlot cattle. Emissions generally increased from 2005 to 2007, as both dairy and beef populations underwent increases and the literature for dairy cow diets indicated a trend toward a decrease in feed digestibility for those years. Emissions decreased again from 2008 to 2012 as beef cattle populations again decreased. Regarding trends in other animals, during the timeframe of this analysis, populations of sheep have decreased 53 percent while horse populations have nearly doubled, with each annual increase ranging from about 2 to 9 percent. Goat and swine populations have increased 25 percent and 23 percent, respectively, during this timeframe, though with some slight annual decreases. The population of American bison almost tripled, while mules and asses have increased by more than a factor of six.

- Overall, emissions from manure management increased 54.7 percent between 1990 and 2012. This encompassed an increase of 68.0 percent for CH₄, from 31.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 52.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012; and an increase of 25.5 percent for N₂O, from 14.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 18.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012. The majority of the increase observed in CH₄ resulted from swine and dairy cow manure, where emissions increased 53 and 116 percent, respectively, from 1990 to 2012. From 2011 to 2012, there was a 1.7 percent increase in total CH₄ emissions, mainly due to minor shifts in the animal populations and the resultant effects on manure management system allocations.

Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

When humans alter the terrestrial biosphere through land use, changes in land use, and land management practices, they also alter the background carbon fluxes between biomass, soils, and the atmosphere. Forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and the landfilling of yard trimmings and food scraps have resulted in an uptake (sequestration) of carbon in the United States, which offset about 15.0 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. Forests (including vegetation, soils, and harvested wood) accounted for approximately 88 percent of total 2012 net CO₂ flux, urban trees accounted for 9 percent, mineral and organic soil carbon stock changes accounted for 1 percent, and landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps accounted for 1 percent of the total net flux in 2012. The net forest sequestration is a result of net forest growth, increasing forest area, and a net accumulation of carbon stocks in harvested wood pools. The net sequestration in urban forests is a result of net tree growth and increased urban forest size. In agricultural soils, mineral and organic soils sequester approximately 4 times as much C as is emitted from these soils through liming and urea fertilization. The mineral soil C sequestration is largely due to the conversion of cropland to hay production fields, the limited use of bare-summer fallow areas in semi-arid areas, and an increase in the adoption of conservation tillage practices. The landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps net sequestration is due to the long-term accumulation of yard trimming and food scraps carbon in landfills.

Land use, land-use change, and forestry activities in 2012 resulted in a net C sequestration of 979.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (267.1 Tg C) (Table 2-9). This represents an offset of approximately 18.2 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions, or 15.0 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. Between 1990 and 2012, total land use, land-use change, and forestry net C flux resulted in a 17.8 percent increase in CO₂ sequestration, primarily due to an increase in the rate of net C accumulation in forest C stocks, particularly in aboveground and belowground tree biomass, and harvested wood pools.

Table 2-9: Net CO₂ Flux from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sink Category	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	(704.6)	(927.2)	(871.0)	(849.4)	(855.7)	(867.1)	(866.5)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(51.9)	(29.1)	(29.8)	(29.2)	(27.6)	(27.5)	(26.5)
Land Converted to Cropland	26.9	20.9	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8
Grassland Remaining Grassland	(9.6)	5.6	6.8	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.7
Land Converted to Grassland	(7.3)	(8.3)	(8.7)	(8.7)	(8.6)	(8.6)	(8.5)
Settlements Remaining Settlements	(60.4)	(80.5)	(83.9)	(85.0)	(86.1)	(87.3)	(88.4)
Other (Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps)	(24.2)	(12.0)	(11.2)	(12.9)	(13.6)	(13.5)	(13.0)
Total	(831.1)	(1,030.7)	(981.0)	(961.6)	(968.0)	(980.3)	(979.3)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate net sequestration.

Land use, land-use change, and forestry source categories also resulted in emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O that are not included in the net CO₂ flux estimates presented in Table 2-9. The application of crushed limestone and dolomite to managed land (i.e., soil liming) and urea fertilization resulted in CO₂ emissions of 7.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, an increase of about 4.2 percent relative to 1990. Lands undergoing peat extraction resulted in CO₂ emissions of 0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. and N₂O emissions of less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. N₂O emissions from the application of synthetic fertilizers to forest soils have increased from 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012. Settlement soils in 2012 resulted in direct N₂O emissions of 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq., a 48.2 percent increase relative to 1990. Emissions from forest fires in 2012 resulted in CH₄ emissions of 15.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., and in N₂O emissions of 12.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (Table 2-10).

Table 2-10: Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source Category	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	8.1	8.9	9.6	8.3	9.6	8.8	8.2
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Liming of Agricultural Soils	4.7	4.3	5.0	3.7	4.8	3.9	3.9
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Urea Fertilization	2.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.4
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
CH₄	2.5	8.1	8.7	5.8	4.7	14.0	15.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	2.5	8.1	8.7	5.8	4.7	14.0	15.3
N₂O	3.1	8.4	9.0	6.5	5.7	13.3	14.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	2.0	6.6	7.1	4.7	3.9	11.4	12.5
Settlements Remaining Settlements: Settlement Soils	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Soils	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	13.7	25.5	27.3	20.5	20.0	36.0	37.8

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Other significant trends from 1990 to 2012 in emissions from land use, land-use change, and forestry source categories include:

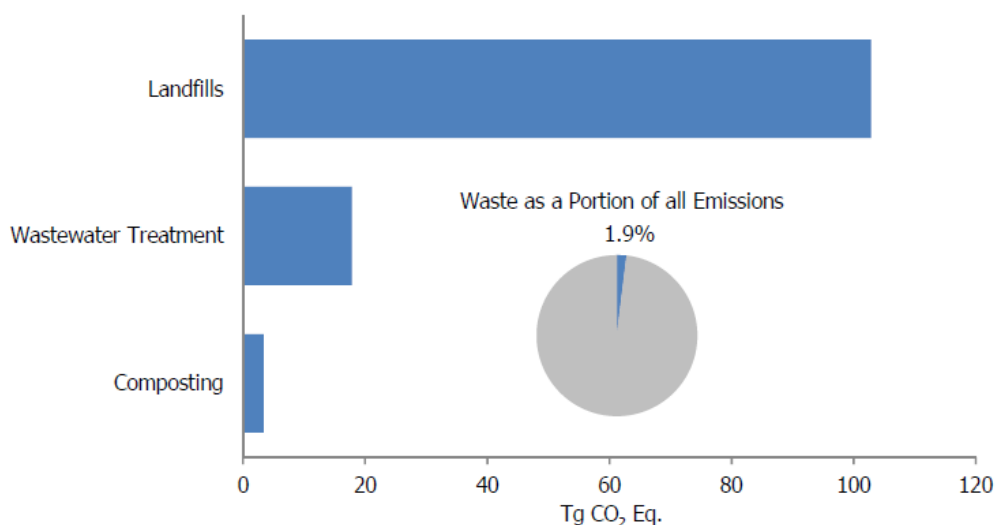
- Net C sequestration by forest land (i.e., carbon stock accumulation in the five carbon pools) has increased by approximately 23 percent. This is primarily due to increased forest management and the effects of previous reforestation. The increase in intensive forest management resulted in higher growth rates and higher biomass density. The tree planting and conservation efforts of the 1970s and 1980s continue to have a significant impact on sequestration rates. Finally, the forested area in the United States increased over the past twenty three-years, although only at an average rate of 0.2 percent per year.
- Net sequestration of C by urban trees has increased by 46.3 percent over the period from 1990 to 2012. This is primarily due to an increase in urbanized land area in the United States.
- Annual C sequestration in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps has decreased by 46.1 percent since 1990. Food scrap generation has grown by 53 percent since 1990, and though the proportion of food scraps discarded in landfills has decreased slightly from 82 percent in 1990 to 78 percent in 2012, the tonnage disposed in landfills has increased considerably (by 46 percent). Overall, the decrease in the landfill disposal rate of yard trimmings has more than compensated for the increase in food scrap disposal in landfills.

Waste

Waste management and treatment activities are sources of greenhouse gas emissions (see Figure 2-11). In 2012, landfills were the third largest source of U.S. anthropogenic CH₄ emissions, accounting for 18.1 percent of total U.S. CH₄ emissions.⁴⁹ Additionally, wastewater treatment accounts for 14.3 percent of Waste emissions, 2.2 percent of U.S. CH₄ emissions, and 1.2 percent of N₂O emissions. Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from composting grew from 1990 to 2012, and resulted in emissions of 3.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012. A summary of greenhouse gas emissions from the Waste chapter is presented in Table 2-11.

⁴⁹ Landfills also store carbon, due to incomplete degradation of organic materials such as wood products and yard trimmings, as described in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter.

Figure 2-11: 2012 Waste Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources



Overall, in 2012, waste activities generated emissions of 124.0 Tg CO₂ Eq., or 1.9 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions.

Table 2-11: Emissions from Waste (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	161.2	127.0	129.3	130.0	124.5	121.8	117.2
Landfills	147.8	112.1	114.3	115.3	109.9	107.4	102.8
Wastewater Treatment	13.2	13.3	13.3	13.1	13.0	12.8	12.8
Composting	0.3	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6
N₂O	3.8	6.2	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.7	6.8
Wastewater Treatment	3.5	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
Composting	0.4	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8
Total	165.0	133.2	136.0	136.5	131.1	128.5	124.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Some significant trends in U.S. emissions from waste source categories include the following:

- From 1990 to 2012, net CH₄ emissions from landfills decreased by 44.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (30.4 percent), with small increases occurring in interim years. This downward trend in overall emissions is the result of increases in the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted as well as reduction in the amount of decomposable materials (i.e., paper and paperboard, food scraps, and yard trimmings) discarded in MSW landfills over the time series,⁵⁰ which has more than offset the additional CH₄ emissions resulting from an increase in the amount of municipal solid waste landfilled.
- Combined CH₄ and N₂O emissions from composting have generally increased since 1990, from 0.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. to 3.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, which represents slightly less than a five-fold increase over the time series. The growth in composting since the 1990s is attributable to primarily two factors: (1) steady growth in population and residential housing, and (2) the enactment of legislation by state and local governments that discouraged the disposal of yard trimmings in landfills.
- From 1990 to 2012, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from wastewater treatment decreased by 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3.0 percent) and increased by 1.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (45.4 percent), respectively. Methane emissions from domestic

⁵⁰ The CO₂ produced from combusted landfill CH₄ at landfills is not counted in national inventories as it is considered part of the natural C cycle of decomposition.

wastewater treatment have decreased since 1997 due to decreasing percentages of wastewater being treated in anaerobic systems, including reduced use of on-site septic systems and central anaerobic treatment systems. Nitrous oxide emissions from wastewater treatment processes gradually increased across the time series as a result of increasing U.S. population and protein consumption.

2.2 Emissions by Economic Sector

Throughout this report, emission estimates are grouped into six sectors (i.e., chapters) defined by the IPCC and detailed above: Energy; Industrial Processes; Solvent and Other Product Use; Agriculture; Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry; and Waste. While it is important to use this characterization for consistency with UNFCCC reporting guidelines, it is also useful to allocate emissions into more commonly used sectoral categories. This section reports emissions by the following U.S. economic sectors: residential, commercial, industry, transportation, electricity generation, and agriculture, as well as U.S. territories.

Using this categorization, emissions from electricity generation accounted for the largest portion (32 percent) of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. Transportation activities, in aggregate, accounted for the second largest portion (28 percent). Emissions from industry accounted for about 20 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. In contrast to electricity generation and transportation, emissions from industry have in general declined over the past decade. The long-term decline in these emissions has been due to structural changes in the U.S. economy (i.e., shifts from a manufacturing-based to a service-based economy), fuel switching, and efficiency improvements. The remaining 21 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions were contributed by the residential, agriculture, and commercial sectors, plus emissions from U.S. territories. The residential sector accounted for 5 percent, and primarily consisted of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. Activities related to agriculture accounted for roughly 9 percent of U.S. emissions; unlike other economic sectors, agricultural sector emissions were dominated by N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management and CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation, rather than CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion. The commercial sector accounted for roughly 5 percent of emissions, while U.S. territories accounted for less than 1 percent. Carbon dioxide was also emitted and sequestered (in the form of C) by a variety of activities related to forest management practices, tree planting in urban areas, the management of agricultural soils, and landfilling of yard trimmings.

Table 2-12 presents a detailed breakdown of emissions from each of these economic sectors by source category, as they are defined in this report. Figure 2-12 shows the trend in emissions by sector from 1990 to 2012.

Figure 2-12: Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors

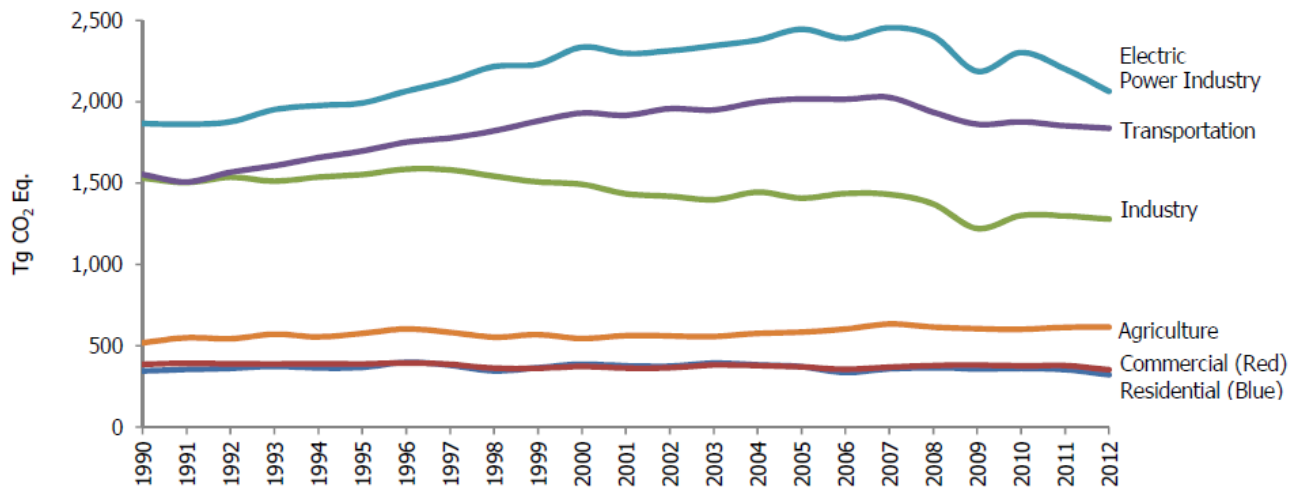


Table 2-12: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Allocated to Economic Sectors (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent of Total in 2012)

Sector/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Percent ^a
Electric Power Industry	1,866.1	2,445.7	2,401.8	2,187.0	2,302.5	2,200.9	2,064.0	31.6%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7	31.0%
Stationary Combustion	7.7	16.5	17.3	17.2	18.9	18.0	18.8	0.3%
Incineration of Waste	8.4	12.9	12.2	12.0	12.4	12.5	12.6	0.2%
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	26.7	11.0	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.0	0.1%
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	2.5	3.2	2.9	3.8	4.8	4.7	4.0	0.1%
Transportation	1,553.2	2,017.2	1,935.2	1,862.4	1,876.4	1,852.1	1,837.0	28.2%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	1,494.0	1,891.7	1,816.5	1,747.7	1,765.0	1,747.9	1,739.5	26.7%
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	+	77.8	83.6	83.5	81.3	76.9	72.9	1.1%
Mobile Combustion	47.4	37.5	25.6	22.7	20.6	18.3	16.3	0.2%
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	11.8	10.2	9.5	8.5	9.5	9.0	8.3	0.1%
Industry	1,531.5	1,407.5	1,371.5	1,220.5	1,300.5	1,297.5	1,278.4	19.6%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	814.0	780.8	758.7	680.8	727.9	719.3	723.2	11.1%
Natural Gas Systems	194.2	182.0	184.3	175.2	167.0	168.3	165.1	2.5%
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	103.3	122.8	109.8	95.6	103.2	100.1	93.9	1.4%
Coal Mining	81.1	53.6	63.5	67.1	69.2	59.8	55.8	0.9%
Iron and Steel Production	100.7	67.4	67.5	43.4	56.3	60.6	54.9	0.8%
Cement Production	33.3	45.9	41.2	29.4	31.3	32.0	35.1	0.5%
Petroleum Systems	36.2	29.1	29.1	29.5	29.9	30.9	32.1	0.5%
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	+	6.4	8.5	10.9	13.5	15.0	16.4	0.3%
Nitric Acid Production	18.2	16.9	16.9	14.0	16.7	15.8	15.3	0.2%
Lime Production	11.4	14.0	14.0	10.9	12.8	13.5	13.3	0.2%
Ammonia Production	13.0	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.2	9.4	9.4	0.1%
Petrochemical Production	5.7	7.5	6.5	5.7	6.5	6.6	6.6	0.1%
Aluminum Production	25.3	7.1	7.2	4.6	4.3	6.2	5.9	0.1%
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	7.4	2.6	2.8	4.4	10.6	5.8	0.1%
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.0	5.2	0.1%
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.7	0.1%
N ₂ O from Product Uses	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	0.1%
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	15.8	13.6	5.4	6.4	6.9	4.3	0.1%
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	2.5	3.2	2.9	3.8	4.8	4.7	4.0	0.1%
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.9	3.5	3.0	2.2	2.8	3.9	3.7	0.1%
Stationary Combustion	4.9	4.7	4.2	3.7	4.0	3.9	3.7	0.1%
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	+
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8	+
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7	+
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	2.9	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.9	1.7	+
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7	+
Zinc Production	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.4	+
Mobile Combustion	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	+
Glass Production	1.5	1.9	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.2	+
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	+
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	+
Agriculture	518.1	583.6	615.3	605.3	600.9	612.7	614.1	9.4%
N ₂ O from Agricultural Soil Management	282.1	297.3	319.0	316.4	310.1	307.8	306.6	4.7%
Enteric Fermentation	137.9	142.5	147.0	146.1	144.9	143.0	141.0	2.2%
Manure Management	45.8	64.6	69.3	68.2	69.6	70.0	70.9	1.1%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	31.0	46.8	45.4	46.7	47.6	49.4	51.0	0.8%
CH ₄ and N ₂ O from Forest Fires	4.5	14.7	15.9	10.5	8.6	25.3	27.7	0.4%
Rice Cultivation	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.9	9.3	7.1	7.4	0.1%

Liming of Agricultural Soils	4.7	4.3	5.0	3.7	4.8	3.9	3.9	0.1%
Urea Fertilization	2.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.4	0.1%
CO ₂ and N ₂ O from Managed Peatlands	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	+
Mobile Combustion	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.54	+
N ₂ O from Forest Soils	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	+
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	+
Stationary Combustion	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Commercial	385.3	370.4	379.2	381.9	376.6	378.3	352.7	5.4%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4	3.0%
Landfills	147.8	112.1	114.3	115.3	109.9	107.4	102.8	1.6%
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	+	12.3	17.2	20.1	23.6	27.0	30.3	0.5%
Wastewater Treatment	13.2	13.3	13.3	13.1	13.0	12.8	12.8	0.2%
Human Sewage	3.5	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0	0.1%
Composting	0.7	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.3	0.1%
Stationary Combustion	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	+
Residential	345.4	371.3	365.4	357.9	360.0	353.6	321.4	4.9%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9	4.4%
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	0.3	7.3	12.9	15.1	19.1	22.6	27.2	0.4%
Stationary Combustion	5.7	4.6	4.8	5.0	4.5	4.5	3.9	0.1%
Settlement Soil Fertilization	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	+
U.S. Territories	33.7	58.2	49.8	47.9	58.0	57.9	57.9	0.9%
CO ₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion	27.9	50.0	41.0	43.8	49.6	49.6	49.6	0.8%
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	5.7	8.1	8.7	3.9	8.2	8.2	8.2	0.1%
Stationary Combustion	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	+
Total Emissions	6,233.2	7,253.8	7,118.1	6,662.9	6,874.7	6,753.0	6,525.6	100.0%
Sinks	<i>(831.1)</i>	<i>(1,030.7)</i>	<i>(981.0)</i>	<i>(961.6)</i>	<i>(968.0)</i>	<i>(980.3)</i>	<i>(979.3)</i>	-15.0%
CO ₂ Flux from Forests	<i>(704.6)</i>	<i>(927.2)</i>	<i>(871.0)</i>	<i>(849.4)</i>	<i>(855.7)</i>	<i>(867.1)</i>	<i>(866.5)</i>	-13.3%
Urban Trees	<i>(60.4)</i>	<i>(80.5)</i>	<i>(83.9)</i>	<i>(85.0)</i>	<i>(86.1)</i>	<i>(87.3)</i>	<i>(88.4)</i>	-1.4%
Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps	<i>(24.2)</i>	<i>(12.0)</i>	<i>(11.2)</i>	<i>(12.9)</i>	<i>(13.6)</i>	<i>(13.5)</i>	<i>(13.0)</i>	-0.2%
CO ₂ Flux from Agricultural Soil Carbon Stocks	<i>(41.9)</i>	<i>(11.0)</i>	<i>(14.9)</i>	<i>(14.3)</i>	<i>(12.7)</i>	<i>(12.5)</i>	<i>(11.4)</i>	-0.2%
Net Emissions	5,402.1	6,223.1	6,137.1	5,701.2	5,906.7	5,772.7	5,546.3	85.0%

Note: Includes all emissions of CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆. Parentheses indicate negative values or sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.05 percent.

^a Percent of total emissions for year 2012.

^b Includes the effects of net additions to stocks of carbon stored in harvested wood products.

Emissions with Electricity Distributed to Economic Sectors

It can also be useful to view greenhouse gas emissions from economic sectors with emissions related to electricity generation distributed into end-use categories (i.e., emissions from electricity generation are allocated to the economic sectors in which the electricity is consumed). The generation, transmission, and distribution of electricity, which is the largest economic sector in the United States, accounted for 32 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. Emissions increased by 11 percent since 1990, as electricity demand grew and fossil fuels remained the dominant energy source for generation. Electricity generation-related emissions decreased from 2011 to 2012 by 6.2 percent, primarily due to decreased CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion. Electricity sales to the residential and commercial end-use sectors in 2012 decreased approximately 3.4 percent and 0.1 percent, respectively. The trend in the residential and commercial sectors can largely be attributed to milder, less energy-intensive winter conditions compared to 2011. Electricity sales to the industrial sector in 2012 decreased by approximately 0.6 percent. Overall, in 2012, the amount of electricity generated (in kWh) decreased by 1.5 percent from the previous year. As a result, CO₂ emissions from the electric power sector decreased by 6.2 percent as the consumption of coal and petroleum for electricity generation decreased by 12.3 percent and 27.6 percent,

respectively, in 2012 and the consumption of natural gas for electricity generation, increased by 20.4 percent. Table 2-13 provides a detailed summary of emissions from electricity generation-related activities.

Table 2-13: Electricity Generation-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Fuel Type or Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	1,831.2	2,417.8	2,375.7	2,161.9	2,276.0	2,175.3	2,038.9
Fossil Fuel Combustion	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7
<i>Coal</i>	1,547.6	1,983.8	1,959.4	1,740.9	1,827.6	1,722.7	1,511.2
<i>Natural Gas</i>	175.3	318.8	361.9	372.2	399.0	408.8	492.2
<i>Petroleum</i>	97.5	99.2	39.2	33.0	32.2	26.6	18.8
<i>Geothermal</i>	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Incineration of Waste	8.0	12.5	11.9	11.7	12.0	12.1	12.2
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	2.5	3.2	2.9	3.8	4.8	4.7	4.0
CH₄	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5
Stationary Combustion*	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	7.8	16.4	17.2	17.2	18.8	18.0	18.6
Stationary Combustion*	7.4	16.0	16.8	16.8	18.5	17.6	18.3
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
SF₆	26.7	11.0	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.0
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	26.7	11.0	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.0
Total	1,866.1	2,445.7	2,401.8	2,187.0	2,302.5	2,200.9	2,064.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

* Includes only stationary combustion emissions related to the generation of electricity.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

To distribute electricity emissions among economic end-use sectors, emissions from the source categories assigned to the electricity generation sector were allocated to the residential, commercial, industry, transportation, and agriculture economic sectors according to each economic sector's share of retail sales of electricity consumption (EIA 2011, Duffield 2006). These source categories include CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion, CH₄ and N₂O from Stationary Combustion, Incineration of Waste, Other Process Uses of Carbonates, and SF₆ from Electrical Transmission and Distribution Systems. Note that only 50 percent of the Other Process Uses of Carbonates emissions were associated with electricity generation and distributed as described; the remainder of Other Process Uses of Carbonates emissions were attributed to the industrial processes economic end-use sector.⁵¹

When emissions from electricity are distributed among these sectors, transportation activities account for the largest share of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions (28.2 percent), followed closely by emissions from industry (27.9 percent). Emissions from the residential and commercial sectors also increase substantially when emissions from electricity are included. In all sectors except agriculture, CO₂ accounts for more than 80 percent of greenhouse gas emissions, primarily from the combustion of fossil fuels.

Table 2-14 presents a detailed breakdown of emissions from each of these economic sectors, with emissions from electricity generation distributed to them. Figure 2-13 shows the trend in these emissions by sector from 1990 to 2012.

⁵¹ Emissions were not distributed to U.S. territories, since the electricity generation sector only includes emissions related to the generation of electricity in the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Figure 2-13: Emissions with Electricity Distributed to Economic Sectors

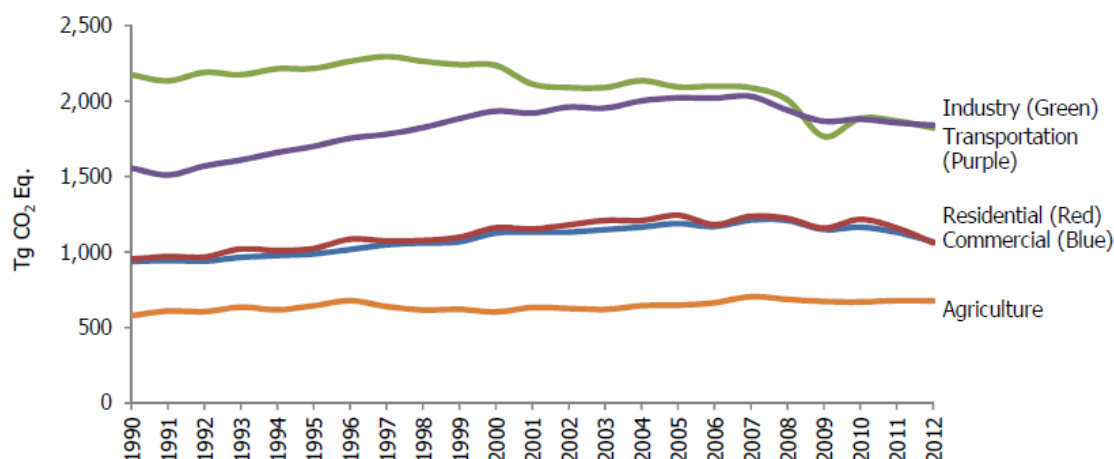


Table 2-14: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Economic Sector and Gas with Electricity-Related Emissions Distributed (Tg CO₂ Eq.) and Percent of Total in 2012

Sector/Gas	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Percent ^a
Industry	2,173.9	2,093.7	2,009.0	1,766.0	1,885.4	1,869.2	1,821.2	27.9%
Direct Emissions	1,531.5	1,407.5	1,371.5	1,220.5	1,300.5	1,297.5	1,278.4	19.6%
CO ₂	1,141.6	1,097.4	1,059.5	925.0	1,001.3	997.6	993.3	15.2%
CH ₄	284.3	245.6	254.4	248.9	243.4	233.6	227.3	3.5%
N ₂ O	42.4	33.0	27.8	24.8	29.4	34.7	29.1	0.4%
HFCs, PFCs, and SF ₆	63.2	31.6	29.8	21.8	26.3	31.6	28.7	0.4%
Electricity-Related	642.4	686.2	637.5	545.5	584.9	571.7	542.8	8.3%
CO ₂	630.4	678.4	630.6	539.3	578.2	565.1	536.2	8.2%
CH ₄	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	+
N ₂ O	2.7	4.6	4.6	4.3	4.8	4.7	4.9	0.1%
SF ₆	9.2	3.1	2.2	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.6	+
Transportation	1,556.3	2,022.0	1,939.9	1,866.9	1,880.9	1,856.4	1,841.0	28.2%
Direct Emissions	1,553.2	2,017.2	1,935.2	1,862.4	1,876.4	1,852.1	1,837.0	28.2%
CO ₂	1,505.8	1,901.9	1,826.0	1,756.2	1,774.5	1,756.9	1,747.8	26.8%
CH ₄	4.4	2.1	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	0.0%
N ₂ O	43.0	35.4	24.0	21.2	19.1	16.9	14.9	0.2%
HFCs ^b	+	77.8	83.6	83.5	81.3	76.9	72.9	1.1%
Electricity-Related	3.1	4.8	4.8	4.6	4.6	4.3	3.9	0.1%
CO ₂	3.1	4.8	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.3	3.9	0.1%
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
SF ₆	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Commercial	936.7	1,188.6	1,209.3	1,149.6	1,164.7	1,131.1	1,067.5	16.4%
Direct Emissions	385.3	370.4	379.2	381.9	376.6	378.3	352.7	5.4%
CO ₂	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4	3.0%
CH ₄	162.1	128.0	130.3	130.9	125.4	122.7	118.0	1.8%
N ₂ O	4.2	6.6	7.0	6.9	6.9	7.1	7.1	0.1%
HFCs	+	12.3	17.2	20.1	23.6	27.0	30.3	0.5%
Electricity-Related	551.4	818.3	830.2	767.7	788.1	752.8	714.8	11.0%
CO ₂	541.1	808.9	821.2	758.9	779.0	744.1	706.0	10.8%
CH ₄	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	+
N ₂ O	2.3	5.5	5.9	6.0	6.4	6.1	6.5	0.1%
SF ₆	7.9	3.7	2.9	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.1	+
Residential	953.1	1,243.5	1,222.9	1,159.2	1,216.5	1,160.1	1,061.7	16.3%
Direct Emissions	345.4	371.3	365.4	357.9	360.0	353.6	321.4	4.9%

CO ₂	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9	4.4%
CH ₄	4.6	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.6	3.6	3.1	+
N ₂ O	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.2	+
HFCs	0.3	7.3	12.9	15.1	19.1	22.6	27.2	0.4%
Electricity-Related	607.8	872.3	857.5	801.4	856.5	806.5	740.3	11.3%
CO ₂	596.4	862.3	848.2	792.2	846.7	797.1	731.3	11.2%
CH ₄	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	+
N ₂ O	2.6	5.8	6.1	6.3	7.0	6.6	6.7	0.1%
SF ₆	8.7	3.9	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.6	2.2	+
Agriculture	579.4	647.7	687.1	673.1	669.3	678.2	676.3	10.4%
Direct Emissions	518.1	583.6	615.3	605.3	600.9	612.7	614.1	9.4%
CO ₂	39.2	55.7	55.1	55.0	57.2	58.2	59.2	0.9%
CH ₄	179.9	206.0	215.4	210.6	211.1	216.5	217.0	3.3%
N ₂ O	298.9	321.8	344.8	339.7	332.5	338.0	338.0	5.2%
Electricity-Related	61.4	64.1	71.8	67.9	68.4	65.5	62.2	1.0%
CO ₂	60.2	63.4	71.0	67.1	67.7	64.7	61.5	0.9%
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	+
SF ₆	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	+
U.S. Territories	33.7	58.2	49.8	47.9	58.0	57.9	57.9	0.9%
Total	6,233.2	7,253.8	7,118.1	6,662.9	6,874.7	6,753.0	6,525.6	100.0%

Note: Emissions from electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate electricity consumption in each end-use sector.

Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.05 percent.

^a Percent of total emissions for year 2012.

^b Includes primarily HFC-134a.

Industry

The industrial end-use sector includes CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion from all manufacturing facilities, in aggregate. This sector also includes emissions that are produced as a by-product of the non-energy-related industrial process activities. The variety of activities producing these non-energy-related emissions includes methane emissions from petroleum and natural gas systems, fugitive CH₄ emissions from coal mining, by-product CO₂ emissions from cement manufacture, and HFC, PFC, and SF₆ by-product emissions from semiconductor manufacture, to name a few. Since 1990, industrial sector emissions have declined. The decline has occurred both in direct emissions and indirect emissions associated with electricity use. However, the decline in direct emissions has been sharper. In theory, emissions from the industrial end-use sector should be highly correlated with economic growth and industrial output, but heating of industrial buildings and agricultural energy consumption are also affected by weather conditions. In addition, structural changes within the U.S. economy that lead to shifts in industrial output away from energy-intensive manufacturing products to less energy-intensive products (e.g., from steel to computer equipment) also have a significant effect on industrial emissions.

Transportation

When electricity-related emissions are distributed to economic end-use sectors, transportation activities accounted for 28 percent of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012. The largest sources of transportation greenhouse gases in 2012 were passenger cars (43.1 percent), light duty trucks, which include sport utility vehicles, pickup trucks, and minivans (18.4 percent), freight trucks (21.9 percent), commercial aircraft (6.2 percent), rail (2.5 percent), and ships and boats (2.2 percent). These figures include direct emissions from fossil fuel combustion used in transportation and emissions from non-energy use (i.e. lubricants) used in transportation, as well as HFC emissions from mobile air conditioners and refrigerated transport allocated to these vehicle types.

Although average fuel economy over this period increased slightly due primarily to the retirement of older vehicles, average fuel economy among new vehicles sold annually gradually declined from 1990 to 2004. The decline in new vehicle fuel economy between 1990 and 2004 reflected the increasing market share of light duty trucks, which grew

from about one-fifth of new vehicle sales in the 1970s to slightly over half of the market by 2004. Increasing fuel prices have since decreased overall light duty truck sales, and average new vehicle fuel economy has improved since 2005 as the market share of passenger cars increased. Over the 1990s through early this decade, growth in vehicle travel substantially outweighed improvements in vehicle fuel economy; however, the rate of Vehicle Miles Traveled (VMT) growth slowed considerably starting in 2005 (and declined rapidly in 2008) while average vehicle fuel economy increased. In 2012, VMT increased by 0.6 percent. Additionally, consumption of diesel fuel has continued to increase recently, due in part to an increase in commercial activity and freight trucking as a result of the economic recovery. Table 2-15 provides a detailed summary of greenhouse gas emissions from transportation-related activities with electricity-related emissions included in the totals.

In terms of the overall trend, from 1990 to 2012, transportation emissions rose by 18 percent due, in large part, to increased demand for travel with limited gains in fuel efficiency over the same time period. The number of vehicle miles traveled by light-duty motor vehicles (passenger cars and light-duty trucks) increased 35 percent from 1990 to 2012, as a result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, urban sprawl, and low fuel prices during the beginning of this period.

From 2008 to 2009, CO₂ emissions from the transportation end-use sector declined 0.5 percent. The decrease in emissions could largely be attributed to decreased economic activity in 2009 and an associated decline in the demand for transportation. Modes such as medium- and heavy-duty trucks were significantly impacted by the decline in freight transport. From 2009 to 2012, CO₂ emissions from the transportation end-use sector stabilized even as economic activity rebounded slightly.

Almost all of the energy consumed for transportation was supplied by petroleum-based products, with more than half being related to gasoline consumption in automobiles and other highway vehicles. Other fuel uses, especially diesel fuel for freight trucks and jet fuel for aircraft, accounted for the remainder. The primary driver of transportation-related emissions was CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, which increased by 16 percent from 1990 to 2012. This rise in CO₂ emissions, combined with an increase in HFCs from close to zero emissions in 1990 to 72.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, led to an increase in overall emissions from transportation activities of 18 percent.

Table 2-15: Transportation-Related Greenhouse Gas Emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Vehicle	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Passenger Cars	657.4	712.6	817.9	811.5	805.8	798.0	793.8
CO ₂	629.3	662.3	769.3	766.0	763.7	760.1	759.8
CH ₄	2.6	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8
N ₂ O	25.4	17.8	14.7	12.4	10.9	9.4	8.0
HFCs	+	31.4	32.9	32.1	30.4	27.6	25.2
Light-Duty Trucks	336.6	553.1	354.8	359.9	359.1	343.1	338.4
CO ₂	321.1	505.9	312.8	317.4	317.6	303.8	301.2
CH ₄	1.4	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
N ₂ O	14.1	13.7	5.2	5.2	4.7	4.1	3.6
HFCs	+	32.8	36.4	37.0	36.5	34.9	33.3
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks	231.1	408.4	427.0	389.2	402.9	402.4	403.4
CO ₂	230.1	396.0	413.9	376.3	390.0	389.6	390.6
CH ₄	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
N ₂ O	0.8	1.1	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.9
HFCs	+	11.1	11.6	11.6	11.6	11.7	11.7
Buses	8.4	12.1	17.4	16.5	16.3	17.5	18.6
CO ₂	8.4	11.8	17.0	16.1	15.9	17.0	18.2
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
HFCs	+	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Motorcycles	1.8	1.7	4.5	4.3	3.8	3.7	4.3
CO ₂	1.7	1.6	4.4	4.2	3.8	3.7	4.2
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Commercial Aircraft^a	110.9	134.0	128.5	120.7	114.4	115.7	114.4

CO ₂	109.9	132.7	127.3	119.5	113.3	114.6	113.3
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
Other Aircraft^b	78.3	59.7	48.2	36.8	40.5	34.2	32.1
CO ₂	77.5	59.1	47.8	36.4	40.1	33.9	31.8
CH ₄	0.1	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3
Ships and Boats^c	45.1	45.2	45.9	39.3	45.3	47.0	40.8
CO ₂	44.5	44.5	45.2	38.7	44.6	46.3	40.1
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6
HFCs	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rail	39.0	53.0	50.7	43.4	46.3	48.0	46.9
CO ₂	38.5	50.3	47.9	40.7	43.5	45.3	44.1
CH ₄	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N ₂ O	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3
HFCs	+	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3
Other Emissions from Electricity Generation ^d	0.1	0.1	+	+	+	+	+
Pipelines^e	36.0	32.2	35.6	36.7	37.1	37.8	40.1
CO ₂	36.0	32.2	35.6	36.7	37.1	37.8	40.1
Lubricants	11.8	10.2	9.5	8.5	9.5	9.0	8.3
CO ₂	11.8	10.2	9.5	8.5	9.5	9.0	8.3
Total Transportation	1,556.4	2,022.0	1,939.9	1,866.9	1,880.9	1,856.4	1,841.0
<i>International Bunker Fuels^f</i>	<i>104.5</i>	<i>114.3</i>	<i>115.5</i>	<i>107.5</i>	<i>118.2</i>	<i>112.8</i>	<i>106.9</i>

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Passenger cars and light-duty trucks include vehicles typically used for personal travel and less than 8,500 lbs; medium- and heavy-duty trucks include vehicles larger than 8,500 lbs. HFC emissions primarily reflect HFC-134a.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a Consists of emissions from jet fuel consumed by domestic operations of commercial aircraft (no bunkers).

^b Consists of emissions from jet fuel and aviation gasoline consumption by general aviation and military aircraft.

^c Fluctuations in emission estimates are associated with fluctuations in reported fuel consumption, and may reflect data collection problems.

^d Other emissions from electricity generation are a result of waste incineration (as the majority of municipal solid waste is combusted in “trash-to-steam” electricity generation plants), electrical transmission and distribution, and a portion of Other Process Uses of Carbonates (from pollution control equipment installed in electricity generation plants).

^e CO₂ estimates reflect natural gas used to power pipelines, but not electricity. While the operation of pipelines produces CH₄ and N₂O, these emissions are not directly attributed to pipelines in the US Inventory.

^f Emissions from International Bunker Fuels include emissions from both civilian and military activities; these emissions are not included in the transportation totals.

Commercial

The commercial sector is heavily reliant on electricity for meeting energy needs, with electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were largely due to the direct consumption of natural gas and petroleum products, primarily for heating and cooking needs. Energy-related emissions from the residential and commercial sectors have generally been increasing since 1990, and are often correlated with short-term fluctuations in energy consumption caused by weather conditions, rather than prevailing economic conditions. Landfills and wastewater treatment are included in this sector, with landfill emissions decreasing since 1990 and wastewater treatment emissions increasing slightly.

Residential

The residential sector is heavily reliant on electricity for meeting energy needs, with electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances. The remaining emissions were largely due to the direct

consumption of natural gas and petroleum products, primarily for heating and cooking needs. Emissions from the residential sectors have generally been increasing since 1990, and are often correlated with short-term fluctuations in energy consumption caused by weather conditions, rather than prevailing economic conditions. In the long-term, this sector is also affected by population growth, regional migration trends, and changes in housing and building attributes (e.g., size and insulation).

Agriculture

The agriculture sector includes a variety of processes, including enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, and agricultural soil management. In 2012, agricultural soil management was the largest source of N₂O emissions, and enteric fermentation was the second largest source of CH₄ emissions in the United States. This sector also includes small amounts of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by motorized farm equipment like tractors. The agriculture sector is less reliant on electricity than the other sectors.

Box 2-1: Methodology for Aggregating Emissions by Economic Sector

In presenting the Economic Sectors in the annual Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks, the Inventory expands upon the standard IPCC sectors common for UNFCCC reporting. Discussing greenhouse gas emissions relevant to U.S.-specific sectors improves communication of the report's findings.

In the Electricity Generation economic sector, CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels included in the EIA electric utility fuel consuming sector are apportioned to this economic sector. Stationary combustion emissions of CH₄ and N₂O are also based on the EIA electric utility sector. Additional sources include CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O from waste incineration, as the majority of municipal solid waste is combusted in “trash-to-steam” electricity generation plants. The Electricity Generation economic sector also includes SF₆ from Electrical Transmission and Distribution, and a portion of CO₂ from Other Process Uses of Carbonates (from pollution control equipment installed in electricity generation plants).

In the Transportation economic sector, the CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels included in the EIA transportation fuel consuming sector are apportioned to this economic sector (additional analyses and refinement of the EIA data is further explained in the Energy chapter of this report). Additional emissions are apportioned from the CH₄ and N₂O from Mobile Combustion, based on the EIA transportation sector. Substitutes of Ozone Depleting Substitutes are apportioned based on their specific end-uses within the source category, with emissions from transportation refrigeration/air-conditioning systems to this economic sector. Finally, CO₂ emissions from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels identified as lubricants for transportation vehicles are included in the Transportation economic sector.

For the Industry economic sector, the CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels included in the EIA industrial fuel consuming sector, minus the agricultural use of fuel explained below, are apportioned to this economic sector. Stationary and mobile combustion emissions of CH₄ and N₂O are also based on the EIA industrial sector, minus emissions apportioned to the Agriculture economic sector described below. Substitutes of Ozone Depleting Substitutes are apportioned based on their specific end-uses within the source category, with most emissions falling within the Industry economic sector (minus emissions from the other economic sectors). Additionally, all process-related emissions from sources with methods considered within the IPCC Industrial Process guidance have been apportioned to this economic sector. This includes the process-related emissions (i.e., emissions from the actual process to make the material, not from fuels to power the plant) from such activities as Cement Production, Iron and Steel Production and Metallurgical Coke Production, and Ammonia Production. Additionally, fugitive emissions from energy production sources, such as Natural Gas Systems, Coal Mining, and Petroleum Systems are included in the Industry economic sector. A portion of CO₂ from Other Process Uses of Carbonates (from pollution control equipment installed in large industrial facilities) are also included in the Industry economic sector. Finally, all remaining CO₂ emissions from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels are assumed to be industrial in nature (besides the lubricants for transportation vehicles specified above), and are attributed to the Industry economic sector.

As agriculture equipment is included in EIA's industrial fuel consuming sector surveys, additional data is used to extract the fuel used by agricultural equipment, to allow for accurate reporting in the Agriculture economic sector

from all sources of emissions, such as motorized farming equipment. Energy consumption estimates are obtained from Department of Agriculture survey data, in combination with separate EIA fuel sales reports. This supplementary data is used to apportion CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, and CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary and mobile combustion (all data is removed from the Industrial economic sector, to avoid double-counting). The other emission sources included in this economic sector are intuitive for the agriculture sectors, such as N₂O emissions from Agricultural Soils, CH₄ from Enteric Fermentation (i.e., exhalation from the digestive tracts of domesticated animals), CH₄ and N₂O from Manure Management, CH₄ from Rice Cultivation, CO₂ emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils and Urea Application, and CH₄ and N₂O from Forest Fires. N₂O emissions from the Application of Fertilizers to tree plantations (termed “forest land” by the IPCC) are also included in the Agriculture economic sector.

The Residential economic sector includes the CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels reported for the EIA residential sector. Stationary combustion emissions of CH₄ and N₂O are also based on the EIA residential fuel consuming sector. Substitutes of Ozone Depleting Substitutes are apportioned based on their specific end-uses within the source category, with emissions from residential air-conditioning systems to this economic sector. N₂O emissions from the Application of Fertilizers to developed land (termed “settlements” by the IPCC) are also included in the Residential economic sector.

The Commercial economic sector includes the CO₂ emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels reported in the EIA commercial fuel consuming sector data. Stationary combustion emissions of CH₄ and N₂O are also based on the EIA commercial sector. Substitutes of Ozone Depleting Substitutes are apportioned based on their specific end-uses within the source category, with emissions from commercial refrigeration/air-conditioning systems to this economic sector. Public works sources including direct CH₄ from Landfills and CH₄ and N₂O from Wastewater Treatment and Composting are included in this economic sector.

Box 2-2: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions-Related Data

Total emissions can be compared to other economic and social indices to highlight changes over time. These comparisons include: (1) emissions per unit of aggregate energy consumption, because energy-related activities are the largest sources of emissions; (2) emissions per unit of fossil fuel consumption, because almost all energy-related emissions involve the combustion of fossil fuels; (3) emissions per unit of electricity consumption, because the electric power industry—utilities and non-utilities combined—was the largest source of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions in 2012; (4) emissions per unit of total gross domestic product as a measure of national economic activity; or (5) emissions per capita.

Table 2-16 provides data on various statistics related to U.S. greenhouse gas emissions normalized to 1990 as a baseline year. Greenhouse gas emissions in the United States have grown at an average annual rate of 0.2 percent since 1990. This rate is slightly faster than that for total energy consumption and slightly slower than growth in national population since 1990 and much slower than that for electricity consumption and overall gross domestic product, respectively. Total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions are growing at a rate similar to that of fossil fuel consumption since 1990 (see Table 2-16).

Table 2-16: Recent Trends in Various U.S. Data (Index 1990 = 100)

Chapter/IPCC Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Growth ^a
Greenhouse Gas Emissions ^b	100	116	114	107	110	108	105	0.2%
Energy Consumption ^c	100	119	118	113	117	116	113	0.6%
Fossil Fuel Consumption ^c	100	119	116	109	113	111	108	0.4%
Electricity Consumption ^c	100	134	136	131	137	137	135	1.4%
GDP ^d	100	159	166	161	165	168	173	2.5%
Population ^e	100	118	122	123	124	125	125	1.0%

^a Average annual growth rate

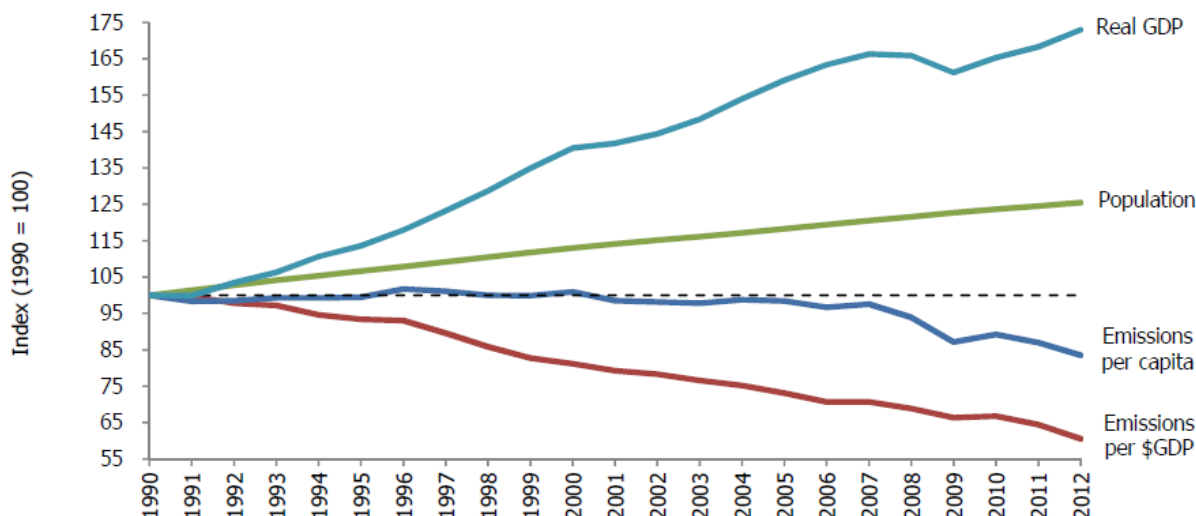
^b GWP-weighted values

^c Energy-content-weighted values (EIA 2014)

^d Gross Domestic Product in chained 2005 dollars (BEA 2013)

^e U.S. Census Bureau (2013)

Figure 2-14: U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar of Gross Domestic Product



Source: BEA (2011), U.S. Census Bureau (2011), and emission estimates in this report.

2.3 Indirect Greenhouse Gas Emissions (CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂)

The reporting requirements of the UNFCCC⁵² request that information be provided on indirect greenhouse gases, which include CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂. These gases do not have a direct global warming effect, but indirectly affect terrestrial radiation absorption by influencing the formation and destruction of tropospheric and stratospheric ozone, or, in the case of SO₂, by affecting the absorptive characteristics of the atmosphere. Additionally, some of these gases may react with other chemical compounds in the atmosphere to form compounds that are greenhouse gases. Carbon monoxide is produced when carbon-containing fuels are combusted incompletely. Nitrogen oxides (i.e., NO and NO₂) are created by lightning, fires, fossil fuel combustion, and in the stratosphere from N₂O. Non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds—which include hundreds of organic compounds that participate in atmospheric chemical reactions (i.e., propane, butane, xylene, toluene, ethane, and many others)—are emitted primarily from transportation, industrial processes, and non-industrial consumption of organic solvents. In the United States, SO₂ is primarily emitted from coal combustion for electric power generation and the metals industry. Sulfur-containing compounds emitted into the atmosphere tend to exert a negative radiative forcing (i.e., cooling) and therefore are discussed separately.

One important indirect climate change effect of NMVOCs and NO_x is their role as precursors for tropospheric ozone formation. They can also alter the atmospheric lifetimes of other greenhouse gases. Another example of indirect greenhouse gas formation into greenhouse gases is CO's interaction with the hydroxyl radical—the major atmospheric sink for CH₄ emissions—to form CO₂. Therefore, increased atmospheric concentrations of CO limit the number of hydroxyl molecules (OH) available to destroy CH₄.

⁵² See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>>.

Since 1970, the United States has published estimates of emissions of CO, NO_x, NMVOCs, and SO₂ (EPA 2013),⁵³ which are regulated under the Clean Air Act. Table 2-17 shows that fuel combustion accounts for the majority of emissions of these indirect greenhouse gases. Industrial processes—such as the manufacture of chemical and allied products, metals processing, and industrial uses of solvents—are also significant sources of CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs.

Table 2-17: Emissions of NO_x, CO, NMVOCs, and SO₂ (Gg)

Gas/Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
NO_x	21,782	17,366	14,440	13,395	12,579	12,574	11,882
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	10,862	10,250	8,481	7,809	7,307	7,214	6,732
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	10,023	5,847	4,698	4,365	4,031	3,787	3,538
Oil and Gas Activities	139	317	386	464	543	621	621
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	76	246	266	175	144	424	464
Industrial Processes	591	566	510	488	466	444	444
Waste Combustion	82	128	85	81	77	73	73
Agricultural Burning	8	6	8	8	8	8	8
Waste	+	2	2	1	1	1	1
Solvent Use	1	3	4	3	2	1	1
CO	132,748	74,956	62,582	52,618	51,807	59,918	61,343
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	119,360	58,062	46,003	39,219	39,468	37,486	37,486
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	2,711	8,783	9,481	6,250	5,124	15,125	16,553
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	5,000	4,644	3,959	4,036	4,112	4,188	4,188
Industrial Processes	4,125	1,553	1,376	1,326	1,277	1,232	1,232
Waste Combustion	978	1,402	1,244	1,164	1,085	1,005	1,005
Oil and Gas Activities	302	318	238	366	493	621	621
Agricultural Burning	268	184	270	247	241	255	253
Waste	1	7	6	5	5	5	5
Solvent Use	5	2	6	5	3	1	1
NMVOCs	20,930	13,080	11,878	11,545	11,563	11,164	10,971
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	10,932	5,667	5,059	4,652	4,596	4,118	3,925
Solvent Use	5,216	3,851	2,992	2,838	2,684	2,531	2,531
Oil and Gas Activities	554	510	1,580	1,806	2,032	2,257	2,257
Industrial Processes	2,422	1,982	1,548	1,544	1,540	1,538	1,538
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	912	715	530	553	576	602	602
Waste Combustion	222	241	114	103	92	81	81
Waste	673	114	54	49	44	38	38
Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
SO₂	20,935	13,180	9,350	8,236	7,029	5,898	4,739
Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion	18,407	11,529	8,289	7,208	6,128	5,048	3,895
Industrial Processes	1,307	829	690	656	622	621	621
Oil and Gas Activities	390	180	135	125	115	105	105
Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion	793	616	217	228	147	109	103
Waste Combustion	38	25	18	17	16	14	14
Waste	+	1	1	1	+	+	+
Solvent Use	+	+	1	1	+	+	+
Agricultural Burning	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Source: (EPA 2013) except for estimates from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues.

NA (Not Available)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

⁵³ NO_x and CO emission estimates from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues were estimated separately, and therefore not taken from EPA (2013).

Box 2-3: Sources and Effects of Sulfur Dioxide

Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emitted into the atmosphere through natural and anthropogenic processes affects the earth's radiative budget through its photochemical transformation into sulfate aerosols that can (1) scatter radiation from the sun back to space, thereby reducing the radiation reaching the earth's surface; (2) affect cloud formation; and (3) affect atmospheric chemical composition (e.g., by providing surfaces for heterogeneous chemical reactions). The indirect effect of sulfur-derived aerosols on radiative forcing can be considered in two parts. The first indirect effect is the aerosols' tendency to decrease water droplet size and increase water droplet concentration in the atmosphere. The second indirect effect is the tendency of the reduction in cloud droplet size to affect precipitation by increasing cloud lifetime and thickness. Although still highly uncertain, the radiative forcing estimates from both the first and the second indirect effect are believed to be negative, as is the combined radiative forcing of the two (IPCC 2001). However, because SO₂ is short-lived and unevenly distributed in the atmosphere, its radiative forcing impacts are highly uncertain.

Sulfur dioxide is also a major contributor to the formation of regional haze, which can cause significant increases in acute and chronic respiratory diseases. Once SO₂ is emitted, it is chemically transformed in the atmosphere and returns to the earth as the primary source of acid rain. Because of these harmful effects, the United States has regulated SO₂ emissions in the Clean Air Act.

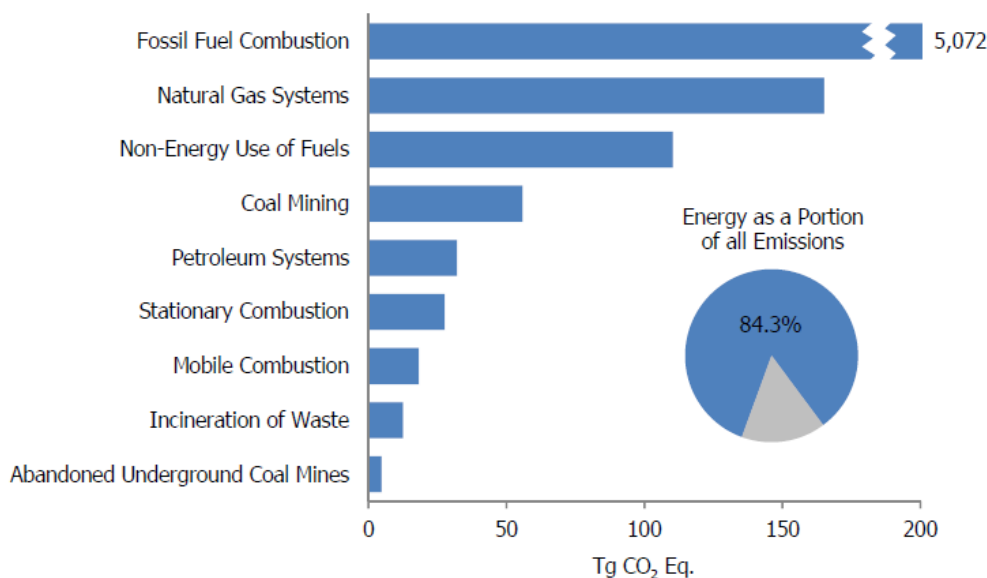
Electricity generation is the largest anthropogenic source of SO₂ emissions in the United States, accounting for 63.3 percent in 2012. Coal combustion contributes nearly all of those emissions (approximately 92 percent). Sulfur dioxide emissions have decreased in recent years, primarily as a result of electric power generators switching from high-sulfur to low-sulfur coal and installing flue gas desulfurization equipment.

3. Energy

Energy-related activities were the primary sources of U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions, accounting for 84.3 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions on a carbon dioxide (CO₂) equivalent basis in 2012.⁵⁴ This included 97, 40, and 9 percent of the nation's CO₂, methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions, respectively. Energy-related CO₂ emissions alone constituted 80.2 percent of national emissions from all sources on a CO₂ equivalent basis, while the non-CO₂ emissions from energy-related activities represented a much smaller portion of total national emissions (4.1 percent collectively).

Emissions from fossil fuel combustion comprise the vast majority of energy-related emissions, with CO₂ being the primary gas emitted (see Figure 3-1). Globally, approximately 32,579 Tg of CO₂ were added to the atmosphere through the combustion of fossil fuels in 2011, of which the United States accounted for approximately 17 percent.⁵⁵ Due to their relative importance, fossil fuel combustion-related CO₂ emissions are considered separately, and in more detail than other energy-related emissions (see Figure 3-2). Fossil fuel combustion also emits CH₄ and N₂O. Stationary combustion of fossil fuels was the second largest source of N₂O emissions in the United States and mobile fossil fuel combustion was the fourth largest source.

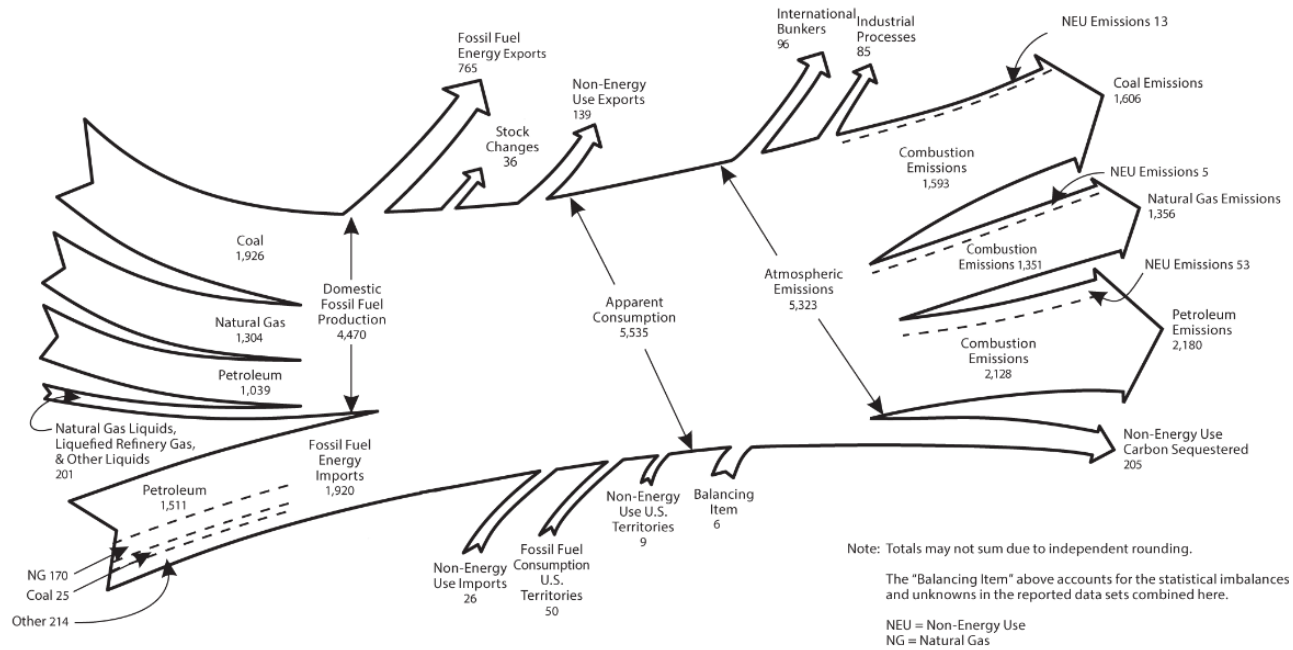
Figure 3-1: 2012 Energy Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources



⁵⁴ Estimates are presented in units of teragrams of carbon dioxide equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.), which weight each gas by its global warming potential, or GWP, value. See section on global warming potentials in the Executive Summary.

⁵⁵ Global CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion were taken from Energy Information Administration *International Energy Statistics 2012* < <http://tonto.eia.doe.gov/cfapps/ipdbproject/IEDIndex3.cfm> > EIA (2012).

Figure 3-2: 2012 U.S. Fossil Carbon Flows (Tg CO₂ Eq.)



Energy-related activities other than fuel combustion, such as the production, transmission, storage, and distribution of fossil fuels, also emit greenhouse gases. These emissions consist primarily of fugitive CH₄ from natural gas systems, petroleum systems, and coal mining. Table 3-1 summarizes emissions from the Energy sector in units of teragrams (or million metric tons) of CO₂ equivalents (Tg CO₂ Eq.), while unweighted gas emissions in gigagrams (Gg) are provided in Table 3-2. Overall, emissions due to energy-related activities were 5,498.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, an increase of 4.5 percent since 1990.

Table 3-1: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Energy (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	4,912.0	5,936.6	5,766.3	5,378.1	5,570.5	5,436.0	5,230.4
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7
Transportation	1,494.0	1,891.7	1,816.5	1,747.7	1,765.0	1,747.9	1,739.5
Industrial	845.1	827.6	804.1	727.5	775.6	768.7	774.2
Residential	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9
Commercial	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4
U.S. Territories	27.9	50.0	41.0	43.8	49.6	49.6	49.6
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	120.8	141.0	128.0	108.1	120.8	117.3	110.3
Natural Gas Systems	37.7	30.0	32.7	32.2	32.4	35.1	35.2
Incineration of Waste	8.0	12.5	11.9	11.7	12.0	12.1	12.2
Petroleum Systems	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Biomass – Wood ^a	215.2	206.9	199.9	188.2	192.5	195.2	194.0
International Bunker Fuels ^a	103.5	113.1	114.3	106.4	117.0	111.7	105.8
Biomass – Ethanol ^b	4.2	22.9	54.7	62.3	72.6	72.9	72.8
CH₄	291.4	249.0	257.8	252.8	246.5	236.5	229.6
Natural Gas Systems	156.4	152.0	151.6	142.9	134.7	133.2	129.9
Coal Mining	81.1	53.6	63.5	67.1	69.2	59.8	55.8
Petroleum Systems	35.8	28.8	28.8	29.1	29.5	30.5	31.7
Stationary Combustion	7.5	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.4	6.3	5.7
Abandoned Underground Coal							
Mines	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.7
Mobile Combustion	4.6	2.4	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
International Bunker Fuels ^a	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

N₂O	56.8	57.9	47.0	43.8	43.6	40.5	38.9
Stationary Combustion	12.3	20.6	21.1	20.8	22.5	21.6	22.0
Mobile Combustion	44.0	36.9	25.5	22.7	20.7	18.5	16.5
Incineration of Waste	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>0.9</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.0</i>
Total	5,260.1	6,243.5	6,071.1	5,674.6	5,860.6	5,712.9	5,498.9

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a These values are presented for informational purposes only, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations, and are not included in the specific energy sector contribution to the totals, and are already accounted for elsewhere.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-2: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Energy (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	4,911,980	5,936,605	5,766,294	5,378,059	5,570,456	5,435,980	5,230,417
Fossil Fuel Combustion	4,745,067	5,752,860	5,593,424	5,225,717	5,404,903	5,271,097	5,072,271
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	120,842	140,997	127,997	108,115	120,827	117,313	110,313
Natural Gas Systems	37,705	29,988	32,707	32,234	32,362	35,082	35,232
Incineration of Waste	7,972	12,454	11,867	11,672	12,033	12,142	12,195
Petroleum Systems	394	306	300	320	332	347	406
<i>Biomass – Wood^a</i>	<i>215,186</i>	<i>206,901</i>	<i>199,932</i>	<i>188,220</i>	<i>192,462</i>	<i>195,182</i>	<i>194,003</i>
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	<i>103,463</i>	<i>113,139</i>	<i>114,342</i>	<i>106,410</i>	<i>116,992</i>	<i>111,660</i>	<i>105,805</i>
<i>Biomass – Ethanol^a</i>	<i>4,227</i>	<i>22,943</i>	<i>54,739</i>	<i>62,272</i>	<i>72,647</i>	<i>72,881</i>	<i>72,827</i>
CH₄	13,875	11,858	12,278	12,037	11,739	11,260	10,933
Natural Gas Systems	7,450	7,240	7,218	6,806	6,413	6,343	6,186
Coal Mining	3,860	2,552	3,026	3,194	3,293	2,849	2,658
Petroleum Systems	1,704	1,374	1,372	1,388	1,407	1,453	1,511
Stationary Combustion	355	315	317	316	304	302	271
Abandoned Underground							
Coal Mines	288	264	253	244	237	231	226
Mobile Combustion	218	113	92	87	85	82	81
Incineration of Waste	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>4</i>
N₂O	183	187	151	141	141	131	125
Stationary Combustion	40	66	68	67	73	70	71
Mobile Combustion	142	119	82	73	67	60	53
Incineration of Waste	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>3</i>

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a These values are presented for informational purposes only, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations, and are not included in the specific energy sector contribution to the totals, and are already accounted for elsewhere.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

In this chapter the methodological guidance was primarily taken from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*. The use of the most recently published calculation methodologies by the IPCC, as contained in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*, is fully in line with the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* for methodological choice to improve rigor and accuracy. In addition, the improvements in using the latest methodological guidance from the IPCC has been recognized by the UNFCCC's Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice in the conclusions of its 30th Session, Numerous U.S. inventory experts were involved in the development of the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*, and their expertise has provided this latest guidance from the IPCC with the most appropriate calculation methods that are then used in this chapter.⁵⁶

⁵⁶ These Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA) conclusions state, "The SBSTA acknowledged that the 2006 IPCC Guidelines contain the most recent scientific methodologies available to estimate emissions by sources and removals by sinks of greenhouse gases (GHGs) not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, and recognized that Parties have gained experience with the 2006 IPCC Guidelines. The SBSTA also acknowledged that the information contained in the 2006 IPCC

Box 3-1: Methodological Approach for Estimating and Reporting U.S. Emissions and Sinks

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emission inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in this report and this chapter, are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). Additionally, the calculated emissions and sinks in a given year for the United States are presented in a common manner in line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for the reporting of inventories under this international agreement. The use of consistent methods to calculate emissions and sinks by all nations providing their inventories to the UNFCCC ensures that these reports are comparable. In this regard, U.S. emissions and sinks reported in this inventory report are comparable to emissions and sinks reported by other countries. Emissions and sinks provided in this inventory do not preclude alternative examinations, but rather this inventory presents emissions and sinks in a common format consistent with how countries are to report inventories under the UNFCCC. The report itself, and this chapter, follows this standardized format, and provides an explanation of the IPCC methods used to calculate emissions and sinks, and the manner in which those calculations are conducted.

Box 3-2: Energy Data from the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program

On October 30, 2009, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) published a rule for the mandatory reporting of greenhouse gases (GHG) from large GHG emissions sources in the United States. Implementation of 40 CFR Part 98 is referred to as the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP). 40 CFR Part 98 applies to direct greenhouse gas emitters, fossil fuel suppliers, industrial gas suppliers, and facilities that inject CO₂ underground for sequestration or other reasons. Reporting is at the facility level, except for certain suppliers of fossil fuels and industrial greenhouse gases. 40 CFR part 98 requires reporting by 41 industrial categories. Data reporting by affected facilities included the reporting of emissions from fuel combustion at that affected facility. In general, the threshold for reporting is 25,000 metric tons or more of CO₂ Eq. per year.

The GHGRP dataset and the data presented in this inventory report are complementary and, as indicated in the respective planned improvements sections for source categories in this chapter, EPA is analyzing how to use facility-level GHGRP data to improve the national estimates presented in this Inventory (see, also, Box 3-4). Most methodologies used in EPA's GHGRP are consistent with IPCC, though for EPA's GHGRP, facilities collect detailed information specific to their operations according to detailed measurement standards, which may differ with the more aggregated data collected for the inventory to estimate total, national U.S. emissions. It should be noted that the definitions and provisions for reporting fuel types in EPA's GHGRP may differ from those used in the inventory in meeting the UNFCCC reporting guidelines. In line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines, the inventory report is a comprehensive accounting of all emissions from fuel types identified in the IPCC guidelines and provides a separate reporting of emissions from biomass. Further information on the reporting categorizations in EPA's GHGRP and specific data caveats associated with monitoring methods in EPA's GHGRP has been provided on the GHGRP website.

EPA presents the data collected by its GHGRP through a data publication tool that allows data to be viewed in several formats including maps, tables, charts and graphs for individual facilities or groups of facilities.

Guidelines enables Parties to further improve the quality of their GHG inventories.” See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2009/sbsta/eng/03.pdf>>

3.1 Fossil Fuel Combustion (IPCC Source Category 1A)

Emissions from the combustion of fossil fuels for energy include the gases CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O. Given that CO₂ is the primary gas emitted from fossil fuel combustion and represents the largest share of U.S. total emissions, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are discussed at the beginning of this section. Following that is a discussion of emissions of all three gases from fossil fuel combustion presented by sectoral breakdowns. Methodologies for estimating CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion also differ from the estimation of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary combustion and mobile combustion. Thus, three separate descriptions of methodologies, uncertainties, recalculations, and planned improvements are provided at the end of this section. Total CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion are presented in Table 3-3 and Table 3-4.

Table 3-3: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3
CH ₄	12.0	9.0	8.6	8.5	8.2	8.1	7.4
N ₂ O	56.3	57.5	46.6	43.5	43.3	40.2	38.5
Total	4,813.4	5,819.4	5,648.6	5,277.7	5,456.3	5,319.3	5,118.2

Table 3-4: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion (Gg)

Gas	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	4,745,067	5,752,860	5,593,424	5,225,717	5,404,903	5,271,097	5,072,271
CH ₄	574	429	409	404	389	385	352
N ₂ O	182	186	150	140	140	130	124

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding

CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion

CO₂ is the primary gas emitted from fossil fuel combustion and represents the largest share of U.S. total greenhouse gas emissions. CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are presented in Table 3-5. In 2012, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion decreased by 3.8 percent relative to the previous year. The decrease in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion was a result of multiple factors including: (1) a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels consumed by power producers to generate electricity due to a significant decrease in the price of natural gas compared to the slight increase in the price of coal; (2) a decrease in transportation sector emissions attributed to a small increase in fuel efficiency across different transportation modes and limited new demand for passenger transportation; and (3) much warmer winter conditions resulting in a decreased demand for heating fuel in the residential and commercial sectors. In 2012, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion were 5,072.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., or 6.9 percent above emissions in 1990 (see Table 3-5).⁵⁷

Table 3-5: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Type and Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Fuel/Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Coal	1,718.4	2,112.3	2,072.8	1,834.2	1,927.7	1,813.9	1,593.0
Residential	3.0	0.8	+	+	+	+	+
Commercial	12.0	9.3	7.6	6.9	6.6	5.8	4.1
Industrial	155.3	115.3	102.4	83.0	90.1	82.0	74.3
Transportation	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
Electricity Generation	1,547.6	1,983.8	1,959.4	1,740.9	1,827.6	1,722.7	1,511.2

⁵⁷ An additional discussion of fossil fuel emission trends is presented in the Trends in U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions Chapter.

U.S. Territories	0.6	3.0	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4
Natural Gas	1,000.3	1,166.7	1,238.1	1,216.9	1,272.1	1,291.5	1,351.2
Residential	238.0	262.2	265.5	258.8	258.6	254.7	224.8
Commercial	142.1	162.9	171.1	168.9	167.7	170.5	156.9
Industrial	408.9	388.5	401.3	377.6	407.2	417.3	434.7
Transportation	36.0	33.1	36.7	37.9	38.1	38.9	41.2
Electricity Generation	175.3	318.8	361.9	372.2	399.0	408.8	492.2
U.S. Territories	NO	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4
Petroleum	2,025.9	2,473.5	2,282.1	2,174.2	2,204.8	2,165.3	2,127.6
Residential	97.4	94.9	80.7	77.5	76.3	70.3	64.1
Commercial	64.9	51.3	46.0	48.1	46.4	45.2	36.4
Industrial	280.9	323.8	300.4	266.8	278.3	269.4	265.2
Transportation	1,457.9	1,858.7	1,779.8	1,709.8	1,726.9	1,709.0	1,698.3
Electricity Generation	97.5	99.2	39.2	33.0	32.2	26.6	18.8
U.S. Territories	27.2	45.7	36.0	39.0	44.7	44.7	44.7
Geothermal*	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	4,745.1	5,752.9	5,593.4	5,225.7	5,404.9	5,271.1	5,072.3

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

NE (Not estimated)

NO (Not occurring)

* Although not technically a fossil fuel, geothermal energy-related CO₂ emissions are included for reporting purposes.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Trends in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion are influenced by many long-term and short-term factors. On a year-to-year basis, the overall demand for fossil fuels in the United States and other countries generally fluctuates in response to changes in general economic conditions, energy prices, weather, and the availability of non-fossil alternatives. For example, in a year with increased consumption of goods and services, low fuel prices, severe summer and winter weather conditions, nuclear plant closures, and lower precipitation feeding hydroelectric dams, there would likely be proportionally greater fossil fuel consumption than a year with poor economic performance, high fuel prices, mild temperatures, and increased output from nuclear and hydroelectric plants.

Longer-term changes in energy consumption patterns, however, tend to be more a function of aggregate societal trends that affect the scale of consumption (e.g., population, number of cars, size of houses, and number of houses), the efficiency with which energy is used in equipment (e.g., cars, power plants, steel mills, and light bulbs), and social planning and consumer behavior (e.g., walking, bicycling, or telecommuting to work instead of driving).

CO₂ emissions also depend on the source of energy and its carbon (C) intensity. The amount of C in fuels varies significantly by fuel type. For example, coal contains the highest amount of C per unit of useful energy. Petroleum has roughly 75 percent of the C per unit of energy as coal, and natural gas has only about 55 percent.⁵⁸ Table 3-6 shows annual changes in emissions during the last five years for coal, petroleum, and natural gas in selected sectors.

Table 3-6: Annual Change in CO₂ Emissions and Total 2012 Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion for Selected Fuels and Sectors (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Sector	Fuel Type	2008 to 2009		2009 to 2010		2010 to 2011		2011 to 2012		Total 2012
Electricity Generation	Coal	-218.5	-11.2%	86.7	5.0%	-104.9	-5.7%	-211.5	-12.3%	1,511.2
Electricity Generation	Natural Gas	10.3	2.8%	26.8	7.2%	9.8	2.5%	83.5	20.4%	492.2
Electricity Generation	Petroleum	-6.3	-15.9%	-0.8	-2.3%	-5.6	-17.4%	-7.8	-29.3%	18.8
Transportation ^a	Petroleum	-70.0	-3.9%	17.1	1.0%	-17.9	-1.0%	-10.7	-0.6%	1,698.3
Residential	Natural Gas	-6.7	-2.5%	-0.3	-0.1%	-3.9	-1.5%	-29.8	-11.7%	224.8
Commercial	Natural Gas	-2.2	-1.3%	-1.2	-0.7%	2.7	1.6%	-13.6	-8.0%	156.9
Industrial	Coal	-19.3	-18.9%	7.0	8.5%	-8.1	-9.0%	-7.7	-9.4%	74.3
Industrial	Natural Gas	-23.7	-5.9%	29.6	7.8%	10.1	2.5%	17.3	4.2%	434.7
All Sectors^b	All Fuels^b	-367.7	-6.6%	179.2	3.4%	-133.8	-2.5%	-198.8	-3.8%	5,072.3

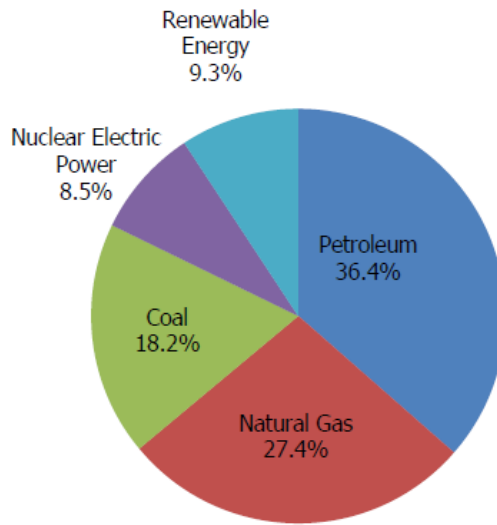
^a Excludes emissions from International Bunker Fuels.

^b Includes fuels and sectors not shown in table.

⁵⁸ Based on national aggregate carbon content of all coal, natural gas, and petroleum fuels combusted in the United States.

In the United States, 82 percent of the energy consumed in 2012 was produced through the combustion of fossil fuels such as coal, natural gas, and petroleum (see Figure 3-3 and Figure 3-4). The remaining portion was supplied by nuclear electric power (8 percent) and by a variety of renewable energy sources (9 percent), primarily hydroelectric power and biofuels (EIA 2014).⁵⁹ Specifically, petroleum supplied the largest share of domestic energy demands, accounting for 36 percent of total U.S. energy consumption in 2012. Natural gas and coal followed in order of energy demand importance, accounting for approximately 27 percent and 18 percent of total U.S. energy consumption, respectively. Petroleum was consumed primarily in the transportation end-use sector and the vast majority of coal was used in electricity generation. Natural gas was broadly consumed in all end-use sectors except transportation (see Figure 3-5) (EIA 2014).

Figure 3-3: 2012 U.S. Energy Consumption by Energy Source



⁵⁹ Renewable energy, as defined in EIA’s energy statistics, includes the following energy sources: hydroelectric power, geothermal energy, biofuels, solar energy, and wind energy.

Figure 3-4: U.S. Energy Consumption (Quadrillion Btu)

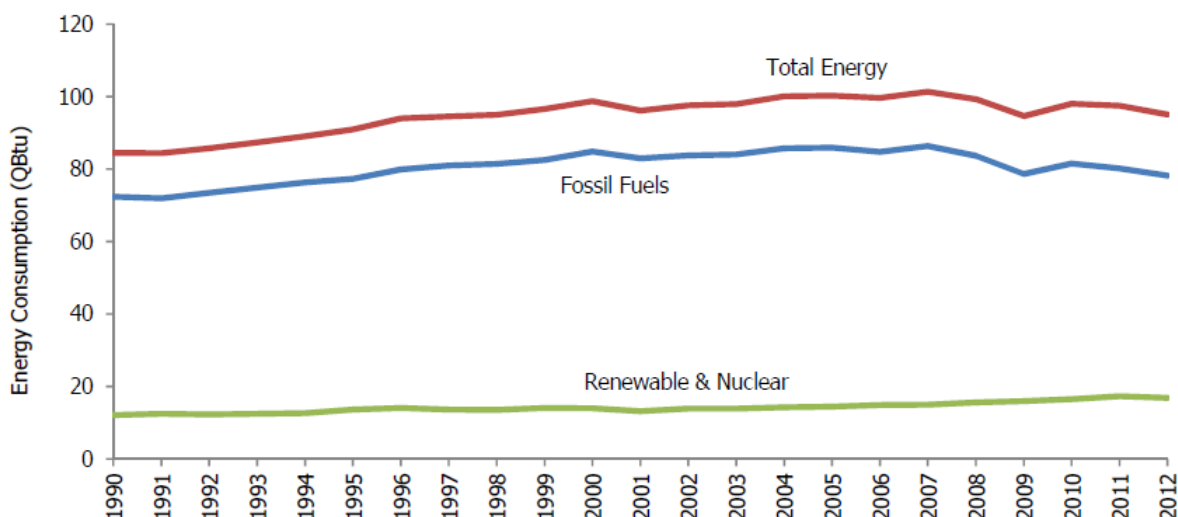
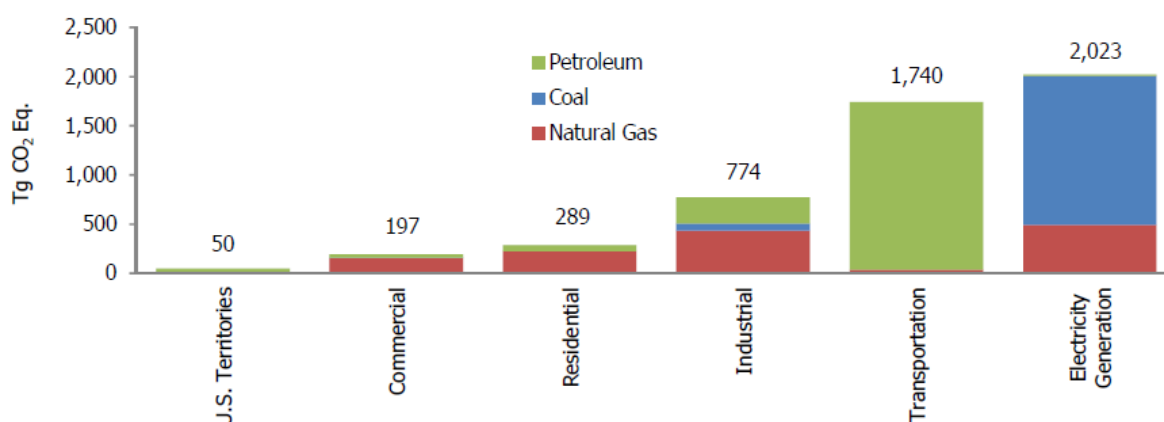


Figure 3-5: 2012 CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector and Fuel Type



Fossil fuels are generally combusted for the purpose of producing energy for useful heat and work. During the combustion process, the C stored in the fuels is oxidized and emitted as CO₂ and smaller amounts of other gases, including CH₄, CO, and NMVOCs.⁶⁰ These other C containing non-CO₂ gases are emitted as a byproduct of incomplete fuel combustion, but are, for the most part, eventually oxidized to CO₂ in the atmosphere. Therefore, it is assumed all of the C in fossil fuels used to produce energy is eventually converted to atmospheric CO₂.

Box 3-3: Weather and Non-Fossil Energy Effects on CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion Trends

In 2012, weather conditions, and a very warm first quarter of the year in particular, caused a significant decrease in energy demand for heating fuels and is reflected in the decreased residential emissions during the early part of the year (EIA 2014). The United States in 2012 also experienced a warmer summer compared to 2011, as heating degree days decreased (12.8 percent) and cooling degree days increased by 2.2 percent. This slight increase in cooling degree days led to only a minor increase in electricity demand to cool homes. However the warmer winter

⁶⁰ See the sections entitled Stationary Combustion and Mobile Combustion in this chapter for information on non-CO₂ gas emissions from fossil fuel combustion.

conditions also resulted in a significant decrease in the amount of energy required for heating, with heating degree days in the United States 18.0 percent below normal (see Figure 3-6). Summer conditions were slightly warmer in 2012 compared to 2011, and summer temperatures were much warmer than normal, with cooling degree days 24.4 percent above normal (see Figure 3-7) (EIA 2014).⁶¹

Figure 3-6: Annual Deviations from Normal Heating Degree Days for the United States (1950–2012)

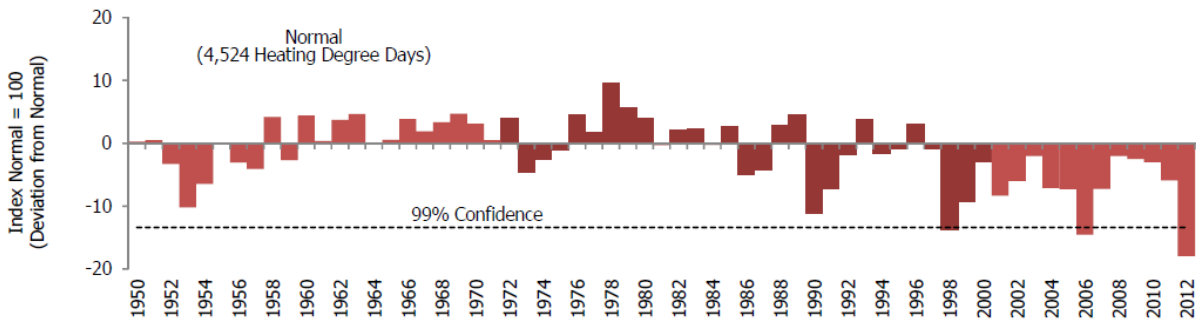
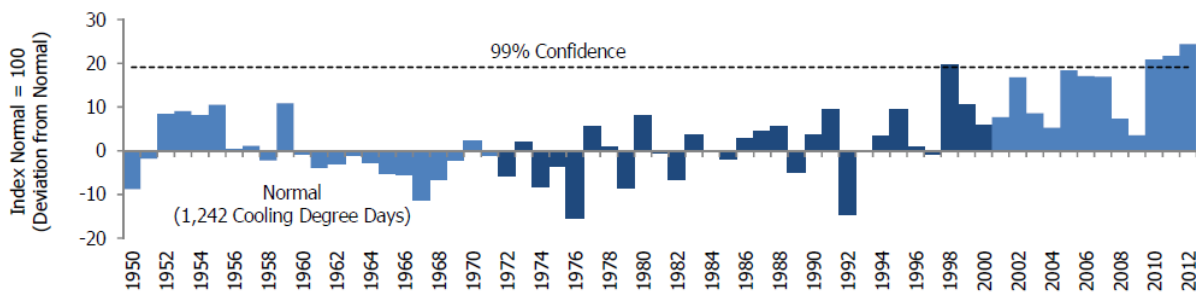


Figure 3-7: Annual Deviations from Normal Cooling Degree Days for the United States (1950–2012)

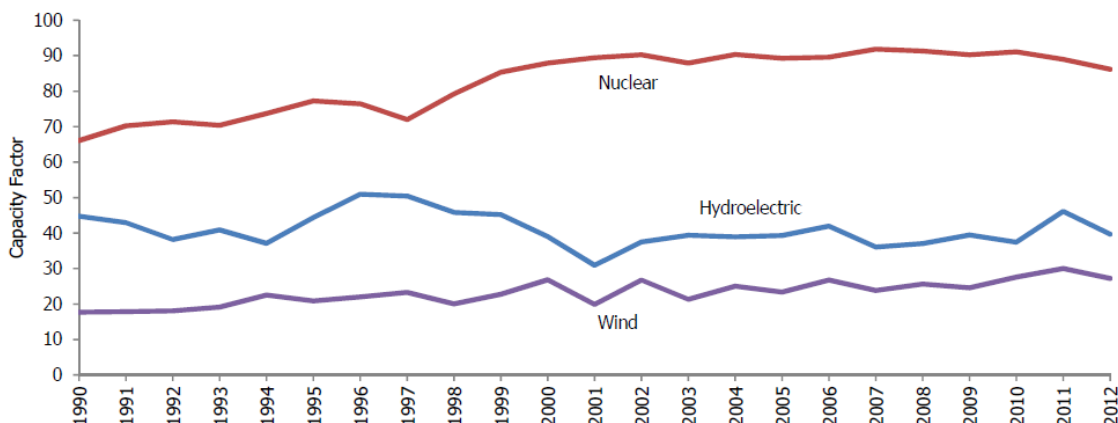


Although no new U.S. nuclear power plants have been constructed in recent years, the utilization (i.e., capacity factors)⁶² of existing plants in 2012 remained high at 86 percent. Electricity output by hydroelectric power plants decreased in 2012 by approximately 14 percent. In recent years, the wind power sector has been showing strong growth, such that, on the margin, it is becoming a relatively important electricity source. Electricity generated by nuclear plants in 2012 provided more than twice as much of the energy consumed in the United States as hydroelectric plants (EIA 2013a). Nuclear, hydroelectric, and wind power capacity factors since 1990 are shown in Figure 3-8.

⁶¹ Degree days are relative measurements of outdoor air temperature. Heating degree days are deviations of the mean daily temperature below 65° F, while cooling degree days are deviations of the mean daily temperature above 65° F. Heating degree days have a considerably greater effect on energy demand and related emissions than do cooling degree days. Excludes Alaska and Hawaii. Normals are based on data from 1971 through 2000. The variation in these normals during this time period was ± 10 percent and ± 14 percent for heating and cooling degree days, respectively (99 percent confidence interval).

⁶² The capacity factor equals generation divided by net summer capacity. Summer capacity is defined as "The maximum output that generating equipment can supply to system load, as demonstrated by a multi-hour test, at the time of summer peak demand (period of June 1 through September 30)." Data for both the generation and net summer capacity are from EIA (2013a).

Figure 3-8: Nuclear, Hydroelectric, and Wind Power Plant Capacity Factors in the United States (1990–2012)



Fossil Fuel Combustion Emissions by Sector

In addition to the CO₂ emitted from fossil fuel combustion, CH₄ and N₂O are emitted from stationary and mobile combustion as well. Table 3-7 provides an overview of the CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion by sector.

Table 3-7: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Electricity Generation	1,828.5	2,418.6	2,378.2	2,163.7	2,278.1	2,176.6	2,041.5
CO ₂	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7
CH ₄	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5
N ₂ O	7.4	16.0	16.9	16.8	18.5	17.6	18.3
Transportation	1,542.6	1,931.0	1,843.9	1,772.2	1,787.5	1,768.1	1,757.8
CO ₂	1,494.0	1,891.7	1,816.5	1,747.7	1,765.0	1,747.9	1,739.5
CH ₄	4.6	2.4	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
N ₂ O	44.0	36.9	25.5	22.7	20.7	18.5	16.5
Industrial	850.0	832.3	808.4	731.2	779.6	772.7	777.9
CO ₂	845.1	827.6	804.1	727.5	775.6	768.7	774.2
CH ₄	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2
N ₂ O	3.3	3.2	2.9	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.5
Residential	344.1	362.5	351.0	341.3	339.4	329.5	292.8
CO ₂	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9
CH ₄	4.6	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.6	3.6	3.1
N ₂ O	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8
Commercial	220.2	224.8	226.0	225.2	221.9	222.8	198.5
CO ₂	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4
CH ₄	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8
N ₂ O	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
U.S. Territories*	28.0	50.2	41.1	44.0	49.8	49.8	49.8
Total	4,813.4	5,819.4	5,648.6	5,277.7	5,456.3	5,319.3	5,118.2

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Emissions from fossil fuel combustion by electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate national electricity consumption by each end-use sector.

* U.S. Territories are not apportioned by sector, and emissions are total greenhouse gas emissions from all fuel combustion sources.

Other than CO₂, gases emitted from stationary combustion include the greenhouse gases CH₄ and N₂O and the indirect greenhouse gases NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs.⁶³ Methane and N₂O emissions from stationary combustion sources depend upon fuel characteristics, size and vintage, along with combustion technology, pollution control equipment, ambient environmental conditions, and operation and maintenance practices. N₂O emissions from stationary combustion are closely related to air-fuel mixes and combustion temperatures, as well as the characteristics of any pollution control equipment that is employed. Methane emissions from stationary combustion are primarily a function of the CH₄ content of the fuel and combustion efficiency.

Mobile combustion produces greenhouse gases other than CO₂, including CH₄, N₂O, and indirect greenhouse gases including NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs. As with stationary combustion, N₂O and NO_x emissions from mobile combustion are closely related to fuel characteristics, air-fuel mixes, combustion temperatures, and the use of pollution control equipment. N₂O from mobile sources, in particular, can be formed by the catalytic processes used to control NO_x, CO, and hydrocarbon emissions. Carbon monoxide emissions from mobile combustion are significantly affected by combustion efficiency and the presence of post-combustion emission controls. Carbon monoxide emissions are highest when air-fuel mixtures have less oxygen than required for complete combustion. These emissions occur especially in idle, low speed, and cold start conditions. Methane and NMVOC emissions from motor vehicles are a function of the CH₄ content of the motor fuel, the amount of hydrocarbons passing uncombusted through the engine, and any post-combustion control of hydrocarbon emissions (such as catalytic converters).

An alternative method of presenting combustion emissions is to allocate emissions associated with electricity generation to the sectors in which it is used. Four end-use sectors were defined: industrial, transportation, residential, and commercial. In the table below, electricity generation emissions have been distributed to each end-use sector based upon the sector's share of national electricity consumption, with the exception of CH₄ and N₂O from transportation.⁶⁴ Emissions from U.S. territories are also calculated separately due to a lack of end-use-specific consumption data. This method assumes that emissions from combustion sources are distributed across the four end-use sectors based on the ratio of electricity consumption in that sector. The results of this alternative method are presented in Table 3-8.

Table 3-8: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion by End-Use Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Transportation	1,545.6	1,935.8	1,848.6	1,776.7	1,792.0	1,772.4	1,761.7
CO ₂	1,497.0	1,896.5	1,821.2	1,752.2	1,769.5	1,752.1	1,743.4
CH ₄	4.6	2.4	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
N ₂ O	44.0	36.9	25.5	22.7	20.7	18.5	16.6
Industrial	1,539.6	1,574.3	1,510.8	1,338.0	1,426.0	1,402.8	1,376.3
CO ₂	1,531.8	1,564.6	1,501.4	1,329.5	1,416.6	1,393.6	1,367.1
CH ₄	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4
N ₂ O	6.1	8.1	7.9	7.2	7.9	7.8	7.9
Residential	939.6	1,225.1	1,200.1	1,134.2	1,186.8	1,127.1	1,025.0
CO ₂	931.4	1,214.7	1,189.2	1,122.9	1,175.2	1,115.9	1,014.3
CH ₄	4.7	3.8	4.0	4.1	3.8	3.8	3.3
N ₂ O	3.5	6.7	7.0	7.2	7.8	7.4	7.4
Commercial	760.5	1,034.0	1,048.0	984.8	1,001.7	967.3	905.4
CO ₂	757.0	1,027.2	1,040.8	977.4	993.9	959.8	897.9
CH ₄	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0
N ₂ O	2.6	5.7	6.2	6.3	6.7	6.4	6.6
U.S. Territories*	28.0	50.2	41.1	44.0	49.8	49.8	49.8
Total	4,813.4	5,819.4	5,648.6	5,277.7	5,456.3	5,319.3	5,118.2

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Emissions from fossil fuel combustion by electricity generation are allocated based on aggregate national electricity consumption by each end-use sector.

⁶³ Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) emissions from stationary combustion are addressed in Annex 6.3.

⁶⁴ Separate calculations were performed for transportation-related CH₄ and N₂O. The methodology used to calculate these emissions are discussed in the mobile combustion section.

* U.S. Territories are not apportioned by sector, and emissions are total greenhouse gas emissions from all fuel combustion sources.

Stationary Combustion

The direct combustion of fuels by stationary sources in the electricity generation, industrial, commercial, and residential sectors represent the greatest share of U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. Table 3-9 presents CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion by stationary sources. The CO₂ emitted is closely linked to the type of fuel being combusted in each sector (see Methodology section for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion). Other than CO₂, gases emitted from stationary combustion include the greenhouse gases CH₄ and N₂O. Table 3-10 and Table 3-11 present CH₄ and N₂O emissions from the combustion of fuels in stationary sources.⁶⁵ Methane and N₂O emissions from stationary combustion sources depend upon fuel characteristics, combustion technology, pollution control equipment, ambient environmental conditions, and operation and maintenance practices. N₂O emissions from stationary combustion are closely related to air-fuel mixes and combustion temperatures, as well as the characteristics of any pollution control equipment that is employed. Methane emissions from stationary combustion are primarily a function of the CH₄ content of the fuel and combustion efficiency. The CH₄ and N₂O emission estimation methodology was revised in 2010 to utilize the facility-specific technology and fuel use data reported to EPA's Acid Rain Program (see Methodology section for CH₄ and N₂O from stationary combustion). Please refer to Table 3-7 for the corresponding presentation of all direct emission sources of fuel combustion.

Table 3-9: CO₂ Emissions from Stationary Fossil Fuel Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Electricity Generation	1,820.8	2,402.1	2,360.9	2,146.4	2,259.2	2,158.5	2,022.7
Coal	1,547.6	1,983.8	1,959.4	1,740.9	1,827.6	1,722.7	1,511.2
Natural Gas	175.3	318.8	361.9	372.2	399.0	408.8	492.2
Fuel Oil	97.5	99.2	39.2	33.0	32.2	26.6	18.8
Geothermal	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Industrial	845.1	827.6	804.1	727.5	775.6	768.7	774.2
Coal	155.3	115.3	102.4	83.0	90.1	82.0	74.3
Natural Gas	408.9	388.5	401.3	377.6	407.2	417.3	434.7
Fuel Oil	280.9	323.8	300.4	266.8	278.3	269.4	265.2
Commercial	219.0	223.5	224.7	223.9	220.7	221.5	197.4
Coal	12.0	9.3	7.6	6.9	6.6	5.8	4.1
Natural Gas	142.1	162.9	171.1	168.9	167.7	170.5	156.9
Fuel Oil	64.9	51.3	46.0	48.1	46.4	45.2	36.4
Residential	338.3	357.9	346.2	336.4	334.8	324.9	288.9
Coal	3.0	0.8	+	+	+	+	+
Natural Gas	238.0	262.2	265.5	258.8	258.6	254.7	224.8
Fuel Oil	97.4	94.9	80.7	77.5	76.3	70.3	64.1
U.S. Territories	27.9	50.0	41.0	43.8	49.6	49.6	49.6
Coal	0.6	3.0	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4
Natural Gas	NO	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4
Fuel Oil	27.2	45.7	36.0	39.0	44.7	44.7	44.7
Total	3,251.1	3,861.1	3,777.0	3,478.0	3,639.9	3,523.2	3,332.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

NO: Not occurring

⁶⁵ Since emission estimates for U.S. territories cannot be disaggregated by gas in Table 3-10 and Table 3-11, the values for CH₄ and N₂O exclude U.S. territory emissions.

Table 3-10: CH₄ Emissions from Stationary Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Electricity Generation	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5
Coal	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1
Fuel Oil	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.1
Natural Gas	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4
Wood	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Industrial	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2
Coal	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Fuel Oil	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Wood	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8
Commercial	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Wood	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4
Residential	4.6	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.6	3.6	3.1
Coal	0.2	0.1	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Natural Gas	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4
Wood	3.7	2.8	3.0	3.3	2.9	2.9	2.5
U.S. Territories	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wood	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	7.5	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.4	6.3	5.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-11: N₂O Emissions from Stationary Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sector/Fuel Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Electricity Generation	7.4	16.0	16.8	16.8	18.5	17.6	18.3
Coal	6.3	11.6	11.6	11.2	12.5	11.5	9.1
Fuel Oil	0.1	0.1	+	+	+	+	0.3
Natural Gas	1.0	4.3	5.2	5.6	5.9	6.1	8.7
Wood	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.1
Industrial	3.3	3.2	2.9	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.5
Coal	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Fuel Oil	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
Natural Gas	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Wood	1.8	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.6
Commercial	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Coal	0.1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Residential	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Natural Gas	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Wood	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
U.S. Territories	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Coal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Fuel Oil	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Natural Gas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wood	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	12.3	20.6	21.1	20.8	22.5	21.6	22.0

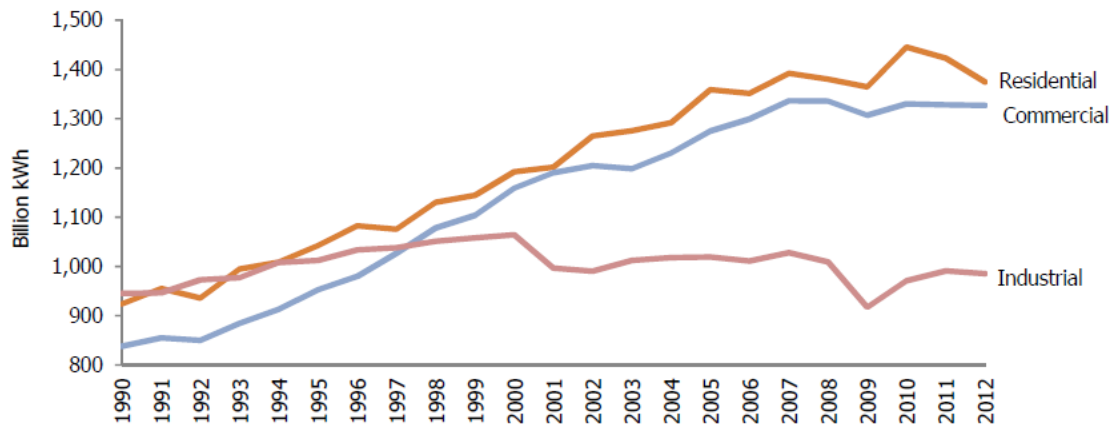
+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Electricity Generation

The process of generating electricity is the single largest source of CO₂ emissions in the United States, representing 38 percent of total CO₂ emissions from all CO₂ emissions sources across the United States. Methane and N₂O accounted for a small portion of emissions from electricity generation, representing less than 0.1 percent and 0.9 percent, respectively. Electricity generation also accounted for the largest share of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, approximately 40 percent in 2012. Methane and N₂O from electricity generation represented 7 and 48 percent of emissions from fossil fuel combustion in 2012, respectively. Electricity was consumed primarily in the residential, commercial, and industrial end-use sectors for lighting, heating, electric motors, appliances, electronics, and air conditioning (see Figure 3-9). Electricity generators, including those using low-CO₂ emitting technologies, relied on coal for approximately 37 percent their total energy requirements in 2012. Recently a decrease in the carbon intensity of fuels consumed to generate electricity has occurred due to a decrease in coal consumption, and increased natural gas consumption and other generation sources. Total U.S. electricity generators used natural gas for approximately 30 percent of their total energy requirements in 2012 (EIA 2014b).

Figure 3-9: Electricity Generation Retail Sales by End-Use Sector



The electric power industry includes all power producers, consisting of both regulated utilities and nonutilities (e.g. independent power producers, qualifying cogenerators, and other small power producers). For the underlying energy data used in this chapter, the Energy Information Administration (EIA) places electric power generation into three functional categories: the electric power sector, the commercial sector, and the industrial sector. The electric power sector consists of electric utilities and independent power producers whose primary business is the production of electricity, while the other sectors consist of those producers that indicate their primary business is something other than the production of electricity.⁶⁶

The industrial, residential, and commercial end-use sectors, as presented in Table 3-8, were reliant on electricity for meeting energy needs. The residential and commercial end-use sectors were especially reliant on electricity consumption for lighting, heating, air conditioning, and operating appliances. Electricity sales to the residential and commercial end-use sectors in 2012 decreased approximately 3.4 percent and 0.1 percent, respectively. The trend in the residential and commercial sectors can largely be attributed to milder, less energy-intensive winter conditions compared to 2011. Electricity sales to the industrial sector in 2012 decreased approximately 0.6 percent. Overall, in 2012, the amount of electricity generated (in kWh) decreased by 1.5 percent from the previous year. As a result, CO₂ emissions from the electric power sector decreased by 6.3 percent as the consumption of coal and petroleum for

⁶⁶ Utilities primarily generate power for the U.S. electric grid for sale to retail customers. Nonutilities produce electricity for their own use, to sell to large consumers, or to sell on the wholesale electricity market (e.g., to utilities for distribution and resale to customers).

electricity generation decreased by 12.3 percent and 27.6 percent, respectively, in 2012 and the consumption of natural gas for electricity generation, increased by 20.4 percent.

Industrial Sector

The industrial sector accounted for 15 percent of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, 17 percent of CH₄ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, and 6 percent of N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion. CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions resulted from the direct consumption of fossil fuels for steam and process heat production.

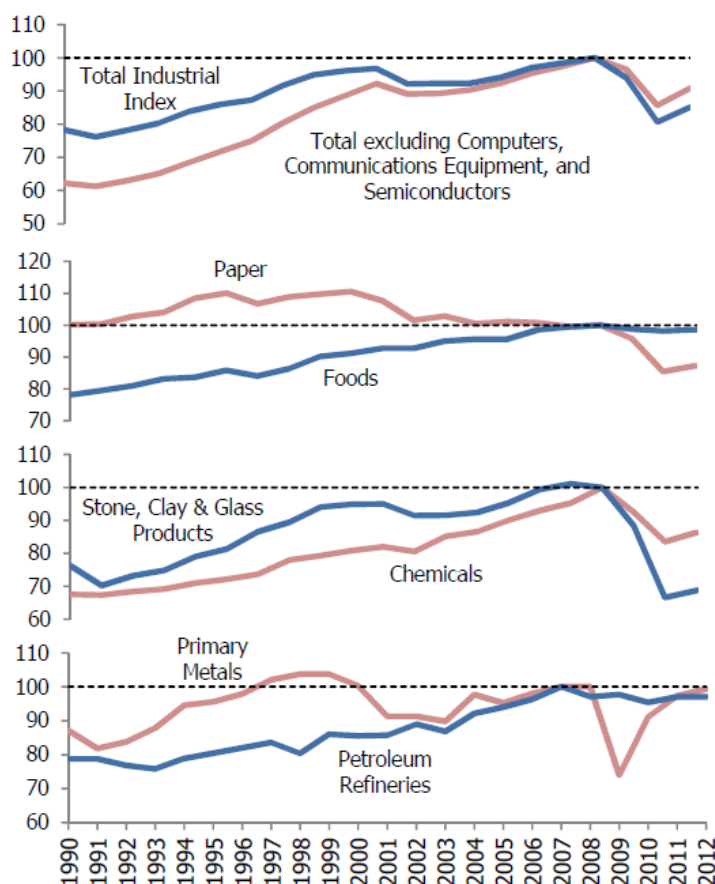
The industrial sector, per the underlying energy consumption data from EIA, includes activities such as manufacturing, construction, mining, and agriculture. The largest of these activities in terms of energy consumption is manufacturing, of which six industries—Petroleum Refineries, Chemicals, Paper, Primary Metals, Food, and Nonmetallic Mineral Products—represent the vast majority of the energy use (EIA 2014a and EIA 2009b).

In theory, emissions from the industrial sector should be highly correlated with economic growth and industrial output, but heating of industrial buildings and agricultural energy consumption are also affected by weather conditions.⁶⁷ In addition, structural changes within the U.S. economy that lead to shifts in industrial output away from energy-intensive manufacturing products to less energy-intensive products (e.g., from steel to computer equipment) also have a significant effect on industrial emissions.

From 2011 to 2012, total industrial production and manufacturing output increased by 3.6 and 4.2 percent, respectively (FRB 2013). Over this period, output increased across production indices for Food, Petroleum Refineries, Chemicals, Primary Metals, and Nonmetallic Mineral Products, and decreased slightly for Paper (see Figure 3-10).

⁶⁷ Some commercial customers are large enough to obtain an industrial price for natural gas and/or electricity and are consequently grouped with the industrial end-use sector in U.S. energy statistics. These misclassifications of large commercial customers likely cause the industrial end-use sector to appear to be more sensitive to weather conditions.

Figure 3-10: Industrial Production Indices (Index 2007=100)



Despite the growth in industrial output (56 percent) and the overall U.S. economy (73 percent) from 1990 to 2012, CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in the industrial sector decreased by 8.4 percent over the same time series. A number of factors are believed to have caused this disparity between growth in industrial output and decrease in industrial emissions, including: (1) more rapid growth in output from less energy-intensive industries relative to traditional manufacturing industries, and (2) energy-intensive industries such as steel are employing new methods, such as electric arc furnaces, that are less carbon intensive than the older methods. In 2012, CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion and electricity use within the industrial end-use sector totaled 1,376.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., or approximately 1.9 percent below 2011 emissions.

Residential and Commercial Sectors

The residential and commercial sectors accounted for 6 and 4 percent of CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, 43 and 11 percent of CH₄ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, and 2 and 1 percent of N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion, respectively. Emissions from these sectors were largely due to the direct consumption of natural gas and petroleum products, primarily for heating and cooking needs. Coal consumption was a minor component of energy use in both of these end-use sectors. In 2012, CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion and electricity use within the residential and commercial end-use sectors were 1,025.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. and 905.4 Tg CO₂ Eq., respectively. Total CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from the residential and commercial sectors decreased by 9.1 and 6.4 percent from 2011 to 2012, respectively.

Emissions from the residential and commercial sectors have generally been increasing since 1990, and are often correlated with short-term fluctuations in energy consumption caused by weather conditions, rather than prevailing economic conditions. In the long-term, both sectors are also affected by population growth, regional migration trends, and changes in housing and building attributes (e.g., size and insulation).

Combustion emissions from natural gas consumption represent 78 percent and 79 percent of the direct fossil fuel CO₂ emissions from the residential and commercial sectors, respectively. In 2012, natural gas combustion CO₂ emissions from the residential and commercial sectors decreased by 11.7 percent and 8.0 percent from 2011 levels, respectively.

U.S. Territories

Emissions from U.S. territories are based on the fuel consumption in American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands. As described in the Methodology section for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, this data is collected separately from the sectoral-level data available for the general calculations. As sectoral information is not available for U.S. Territories, CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions are not presented for U.S. Territories in the tables above, though the emissions will include some transportation and mobile combustion sources.

Transportation Sector and Mobile Combustion

This discussion of transportation emissions follows the alternative method of presenting combustion emissions by allocating emissions associated with electricity generation to the transportation end-use sector, as presented in Table 3-8. For direct emissions from transportation (i.e., not including emissions associated with the sector's electricity consumption), please see Table 3-7.

Transportation End-Use Sector

The transportation end-use sector accounted for 1,761.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, which represented 35 percent of CO₂ emissions, 23 percent of CH₄ emissions, and 43 percent of N₂O emissions from fossil fuel combustion, respectively. Fuel purchased in the U.S. for international aircraft and marine travel accounted for an additional 105.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012; these emissions are recorded as international bunkers and are not included in U.S. totals according to UNFCCC reporting protocols. Among domestic transportation sources, light duty vehicles (including passenger cars and light-duty trucks) represented 61 percent of CO₂ emissions, medium- and heavy-duty trucks 22 percent, commercial aircraft 6 percent, and other sources 10 percent. See Table 3-12 for a detailed breakdown of CO₂ emissions by mode and fuel type. Emissions of CO₂ from the combustion of ethanol for transportation and emissions associated with the agricultural and industrial processes involved in the production of ethanol are captured in other sectors.⁶⁸ Ethanol consumption from the transportation sector has increased from 0.7 billion gallons in 1990 to 12.3 billion gallons in 2012. For further information, see the section on wood biomass and ethanol consumption at the end of this chapter, and Table A-91 in Annex 3.2.

From 1990 to 2012, transportation emissions rose by 18 percent due, in large part, to increased demand for travel with limited gains in fuel efficiency over the same time period. The number of vehicle miles traveled by light-duty motor vehicles (passenger cars and light-duty trucks) increased 35 percent from 1990 to 2012, as a result of a confluence of factors including population growth, economic growth, urban sprawl, and low fuel prices during the beginning of this period.

From 2011 to 2012, CO₂ emissions from the transportation end-use sector decreased by 0.5 percent. The decrease in emissions can largely be attributed to a small increase in fuel efficiency across different transportation modes and limited new demand for passenger transportation. Commercial aircraft emissions continued to fall, having decreased 19 percent since 2007. Decreases in jet fuel emissions (excluding bunkers) are due in part to improved operational efficiency that results in more direct flight routing, improvements in aircraft and engine technologies to reduce fuel burn and emissions, and the accelerated retirement of older, less fuel efficient aircraft.

Almost all of the energy consumed for transportation was supplied by petroleum-based products, with more than half being related to gasoline consumption in automobiles and other highway vehicles. Other fuel uses, especially diesel fuel for freight trucks and jet fuel for aircraft, accounted for the remainder. The primary driver of transportation-related emissions was CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, which increased by 16 percent from 1990 to 2012. This rise in CO₂ emissions, combined with an increase in HFCs from close to zero emissions in 1990 to 72.9

⁶⁸ Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations.

Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, led to an increase in overall GHG emissions from transportation activities of 18 percent (see Table 2-14).

Transportation Fossil Fuel Combustion CO₂ Emissions

Domestic transportation CO₂ emissions increased by 16 percent (246.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.) between 1990 and 2012, an annualized increase of 0.7 percent. However, between 2011 and 2012, CO₂ emissions from domestic transportation decreased by 0.5 percent, which was similar to the previous year's trend of decreasing emissions. Almost all of the energy consumed by the transportation sector is petroleum-based, including motor gasoline, diesel fuel, jet fuel, and residual oil.⁶⁹ Transportation sources also produce CH₄ and N₂O; these emissions are included in Table 3-13 and Table 3-14 in the "Mobile Combustion" Section. Annex 3.2 presents total emissions from all transportation and mobile sources, including CO₂, N₂O, CH₄, and HFCs.

Carbon dioxide emissions from passenger cars and light-duty trucks totaled 1,061.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012, an increase of 12 percent (110.6 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990. CO₂ emissions from passenger cars and light-duty trucks peaked at 1,184.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2004, and since then have declined about 10 percent. Over the 1990s through the early 2000s, growth in vehicle travel substantially outweighed improvements in vehicle fuel economy; however, the rate of Vehicle Miles Traveled (VMT) growth slowed considerably starting in 2005 (and declined rapidly in 2008) while average vehicle fuel economy increased. Among new vehicles sold annually, average fuel economy gradually declined from 1990 to 2004 (Figure 3-11), reflecting substantial growth in sales of light-duty trucks—in particular, growth in the market share of sport utility vehicles—relative to passenger cars (Figure 3-12). New vehicle fuel economy improved beginning in 2005, largely due to higher light-duty truck fuel economy standards, which have risen each year since 2005. The overall increase in fuel economy is also due to a slightly lower light-duty truck market share, which peaked in 2004 at 48 percent and declined to 36 percent in 2012 (EPA 2013d).

Passenger car CO₂ emissions increased by 21 percent from 1990 to 2012, light-duty truck CO₂ emissions decreased by 6 percent and medium- and heavy-duty trucks increased by 70 percent.⁷⁰ Carbon dioxide from the domestic operation of commercial aircraft increased by 3 percent (3.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2012. Across all categories of aviation, CO₂ emissions decreased by 22.5 percent (42.2 Tg CO₂ Eq.) between 1990 and 2012.⁷¹ This includes a 65 percent (22.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.) decrease in emissions from domestic military operations. For further information on all greenhouse gas emissions from transportation sources, please refer to Annex 3.2.

⁶⁹ Biofuel estimates are presented in the Energy chapter for informational purposes only, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations. Net carbon fluxes from changes in biogenic carbon reservoirs in croplands are accounted for in the estimates for Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (see Chapter 7). More information and additional analyses on biofuels are available at EPA's "Renewable Fuels: Regulations & Standards;" See <<http://www.epa.gov/otaq/fuels/renewablefuels/regulations.htm>>.

⁷⁰ Includes "light-duty trucks" fueled by gasoline, diesel and LPG.

⁷¹ Includes consumption of jet fuel and aviation gasoline. Does not include aircraft bunkers, which are not included in national emission totals, in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations.

Figure 3-11: Sales-Weighted Fuel Economy of New Passenger Cars and Light-Duty Trucks, 1990–2012

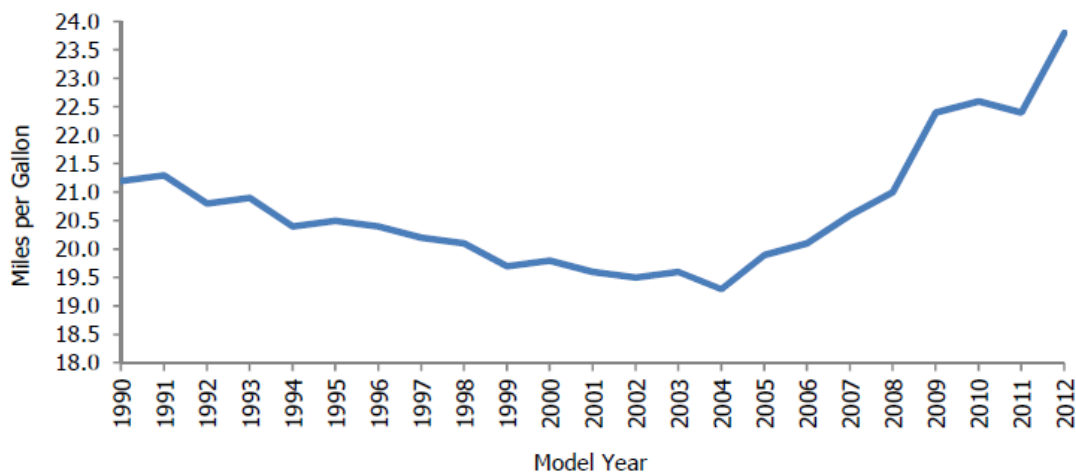


Figure 3-12: Sales of New Passenger Cars and Light-Duty Trucks, 1990–2012

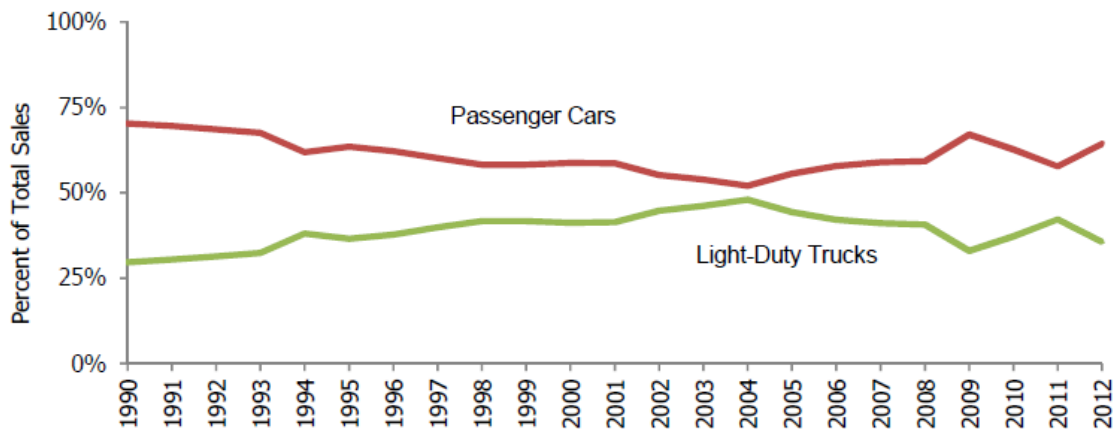


Table 3-12: CO₂ Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion in Transportation End-Use Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Fuel/Vehicle Type	1990	2005	2008 ^a	2009	2010	2011	2012
Gasoline	983.7	1,187.8	1,130.3	1,128.5	1,124.9	1,102.8	1,099.9
Passenger Cars	621.4	658.0	765.6	762.4	760.0	756.0	755.6
Light-Duty Trucks	309.1	478.7	298.9	304.1	303.7	289.3	286.6
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks ^b	38.7	34.9	47.2	43.6	43.6	40.1	39.8
Buses	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Motorcycles	1.7	1.6	4.4	4.2	3.8	3.7	4.2
Recreational Boats	12.4	14.1	13.5	13.3	13.1	13.0	12.9
Distillate Fuel Oil (Diesel)	262.9	458.1	451.6	409.7	426.4	436.3	435.4
Passenger Cars	7.9	4.2	3.7	3.6	3.8	4.1	4.2
Light-Duty Trucks	11.5	25.8	12.1	12.1	12.6	13.2	13.2
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks ^b	190.5	360.6	366.1	332.2	345.9	348.9	350.2
Buses	8.0	10.6	15.2	14.1	14.1	15.2	16.3
Rail	35.5	45.6	43.2	36.3	39.0	41.0	40.2
Recreational Boats	2.0	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.7

Ships and Other Boats ^c	7.5	8.1	7.9	7.9	7.5	10.3	7.7
<i>International Bunker Fuel^d</i>	<i>11.7</i>	<i>9.4</i>	<i>9.0</i>	<i>8.2</i>	<i>9.5</i>	<i>7.9</i>	<i>6.8</i>
Jet Fuel^c	184.2	189.3	173.0	154.1	151.5	146.6	143.4
Commercial Aircraft ^e	109.9	132.7	127.3	119.5	113.3	114.6	113.3
Military Aircraft	35.0	19.4	17.6	15.4	13.6	11.6	12.1
General Aviation Aircraft	39.4	37.3	28.2	19.2	24.6	20.4	18.0
<i>International Bunker Fuels^d</i>	<i>38.0</i>	<i>60.1</i>	<i>56.1</i>	<i>52.8</i>	<i>61.0</i>	<i>64.8</i>	<i>64.5</i>
<i>International Bunker Fuels From Commercial Aviation</i>	<i>30.0</i>	<i>55.6</i>	<i>52.4</i>	<i>49.2</i>	<i>57.4</i>	<i>61.7</i>	<i>61.4</i>
Aviation Gasoline	3.1	2.4	2.0	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.7
General Aviation Aircraft	3.1	2.4	2.0	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.7
Residual Fuel Oil	22.6	19.3	20.4	13.9	20.4	19.4	15.8
Ships and Other Boats ^c	22.6	19.3	20.4	13.9	20.4	19.4	15.8
<i>International Bunker Fuel^d</i>	<i>53.7</i>	<i>43.6</i>	<i>49.2</i>	<i>45.4</i>	<i>46.5</i>	<i>38.9</i>	<i>34.5</i>
Natural Gas	36.0	33.1	36.7	37.9	38.1	38.9	41.2
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Buses	+	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Pipeline ^f	36.0	32.2	35.6	36.7	37.1	37.8	40.1
LPG	1.4	1.7	2.5	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.1
Light-Duty Trucks	0.6	1.3	1.8	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks ^b	0.8	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
Buses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Electricity	3.0	4.7	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.3	3.9
Rail	3.0	4.7	4.7	4.5	4.5	4.3	3.9
<i>Ethanol^g</i>	<i>4.1</i>	<i>22.4</i>	<i>53.8</i>	<i>61.2</i>	<i>71.3</i>	<i>71.5</i>	<i>71.5</i>
Total	1,497.0	1,896.5	1,821.2	1,752.2	1,769.5	1,752.1	1,743.4
Total (Including Bunkers)^d	1,600.5	2,009.6	1,935.5	1,858.6	1,886.5	1,863.8	1,849.2

Note: This table does not include emissions from non-transportation mobile sources, such as agricultural equipment and construction/mining equipment; it also does not include emissions associated with electricity consumption by pipelines or lubricants used in transportation.

^a In 2011, FHWA changed how vehicles are classified, moving from a system based on body-type to one that is based on wheelbase. This change in methodology in FHWA's VM-1 table resulted in large changes in VMT by vehicle class, thus leading to a shift in emissions among on-road vehicle classes in the 2007 to 2012 time period.

^b Includes medium- and heavy-duty trucks over 8,500 lbs.

^c Fluctuations in emission estimates reflect data collection problems.

^d Official estimates exclude emissions from the combustion of both aviation and marine international bunker fuels; however, estimates including international bunker fuel-related emissions are presented for informational purposes.

^e Commercial aircraft, as modeled in FAA's AEDT, consists of passenger aircraft, cargo, and other chartered flights.

^f Pipelines reflect CO₂ emissions from natural gas powered pipelines transporting natural gas.

^g Ethanol estimates are presented for informational purposes only. See section 3.10 of this chapter and the estimates in Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (see Chapter 7), in line with IPCC methodological guidance and UNFCCC reporting obligations, for more information on ethanol.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Mobile Fossil Fuel Combustion CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

Mobile combustion includes emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from all transportation sources identified in the U.S. inventory with the exception of pipelines, which are stationary;⁷² mobile sources also include non-transportation sources such as construction/mining equipment, agricultural equipment, vehicles used off-road, and other sources (e.g., snowmobiles, lawnmowers, etc.). Annex 3.2 includes a summary of all emissions from both transportation and mobile sources. Table 3-13 and Table 3-14 provide CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates in Tg CO₂ Eq.⁷³

⁷² Fugitive emissions of CH₄ from natural gas systems are reported under the Industrial economic sector. More information on the methodology used to calculate these emissions are included in Annex 3.4

⁷³ See Annex 3.2 for a complete time series of emission estimates for 1990 through 2012.

Mobile combustion was responsible for a small portion of national CH₄ emissions (0.3 percent) but was the fourth largest source of U.S. N₂O emissions (4 percent). From 1990 to 2012, mobile source CH₄ emissions declined by 63 percent, to 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (81 Gg), due largely to control technologies employed in on-road vehicles since the mid-1990s to reduce CO, NO_x, NMVOC, and CH₄ emissions. Mobile source emissions of N₂O decreased by 62 percent, to 16.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (53 Gg). Earlier generation control technologies initially resulted in higher N₂O emissions, causing a 26 percent increase in N₂O emissions from mobile sources between 1990 and 1997. Improvements in later-generation emission control technologies have reduced N₂O output, resulting in a 70 percent decrease in mobile source N₂O emissions from 1997 to 2012 (Figure 3-13). Overall, CH₄ and N₂O emissions were predominantly from gasoline-fueled passenger cars and light-duty trucks.

Figure 3-13: Mobile Source CH₄ and N₂O Emissions

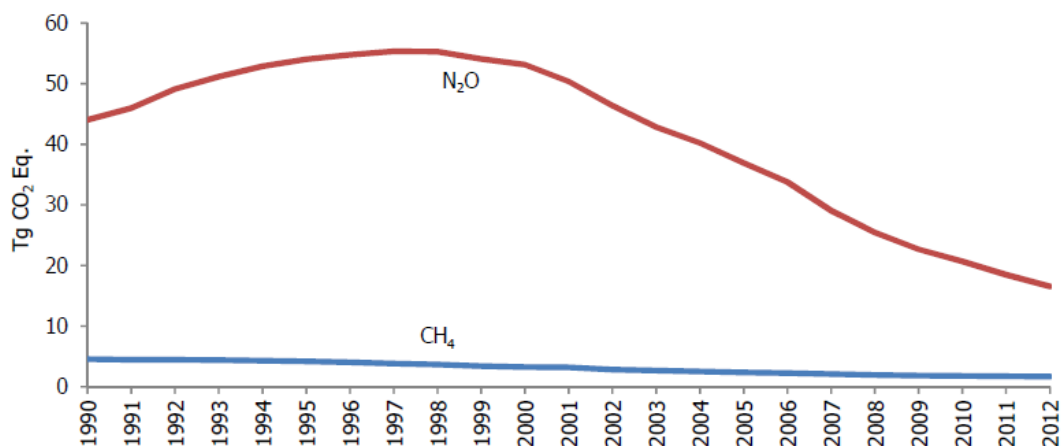


Table 3-13: CH₄ Emissions from Mobile Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type ^a	1990	2005	2008 ^e	2009	2010	2011	2012
Gasoline On-Road	4.2	1.9	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1
Passenger Cars	2.6	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8
Light-Duty Trucks	1.4	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks and Buses	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Motorcycles	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Diesel On-Road	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks and Buses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Alternative Fuel On-Road	+	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Non-Road	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5
Ships and Boats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rail	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Aircraft	0.1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Agricultural Equipment ^b	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
Construction/Mining Equipment ^c	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other ^d	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	4.6	2.4	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7

^a See Annex 3.2 for definitions of on-road vehicle types.

^b Includes equipment, such as tractors and combines, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in agriculture.

^c Includes equipment, such as cranes, dumpers, and excavators, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in construction.

^d "Other" includes snowmobiles and other recreational equipment, logging equipment, lawn and garden equipment, railroad equipment, airport equipment, commercial equipment, and industrial equipment, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road for commercial/industrial purposes.

^e In 2011, FHWA changed how vehicles are classified, moving from a system based on body-type to one that is based on wheelbase. This change in methodology in FHWA's VM-1 table resulted in large changes in VMT by vehicle class, thus leading to a shift in emissions among on-road vehicle classes in the 2007 to 2012 time period.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-14: N₂O Emissions from Mobile Combustion (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Fuel Type/Vehicle Type ^a	1990	2005	2008 ^e	2009	2010	2011	2012
Gasoline On-Road	40.1	32.2	20.7	18.3	16.1	13.9	12.0
Passenger Cars	25.4	17.8	14.6	12.4	10.8	9.4	8.0
Light-Duty Trucks	14.1	13.6	5.2	5.1	4.6	4.0	3.5
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks and Buses	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5
Motorcycles	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Diesel On-Road	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Passenger Cars	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Light-Duty Trucks	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Medium- and Heavy-Duty Trucks and Buses	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Alternative Fuel On-Road	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Non-Road	3.7	4.3	4.1	3.8	4.0	4.0	3.9
Ships and Boats	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.6
Rail	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Aircraft	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4
Agricultural Equipment ^b	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Construction/Mining Equipment ^c	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
Other ^d	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Total	44.0	36.9	25.5	22.7	20.7	18.5	16.5

^a See Annex 3.2 for definitions of on-road vehicle types.

^b Includes equipment, such as tractors and combines, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in agriculture.

^c Includes equipment, such as cranes, dumpers, and excavators, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road in construction.

^d "Other" includes snowmobiles and other recreational equipment, logging equipment, lawn and garden equipment, railroad equipment, airport equipment, commercial equipment, and industrial equipment, as well as fuel consumption from trucks that are used off-road for commercial/industrial purposes.

^e In 2011, FHWA changed how vehicles are classified, moving from a system based on body-type to one that is based on wheelbase. This change in methodology in FHWA's VM-1 table resulted in large changes in VMT by vehicle class, thus leading to a shift in emissions among on-road vehicle classes in the 2007 to 2012 time period.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion

Methodology

The methodology used by the United States for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion is conceptually similar to the approach recommended by the IPCC for countries that intend to develop detailed, sectoral-based emission estimates in line with a Tier 2 method in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006).⁷⁴ The use of the most recently published calculation methodologies by

⁷⁴ The IPCC Tier 3B methodology is used for estimating emissions from commercial aircraft.

the IPCC, as contained in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*, is considered to improve the rigor and accuracy of this inventory and is fully in line with IPCC Good Practice Guidance. A detailed description of the U.S. methodology is presented in Annex 2.1, and is characterized by the following steps:

1. *Determine total fuel consumption by fuel type and sector.* Total fossil fuel consumption for each year is estimated by aggregating consumption data by end-use sector (e.g., commercial, industrial, etc.), primary fuel type (e.g., coal, petroleum, gas), and secondary fuel category (e.g., motor gasoline, distillate fuel oil, etc.). Fuel consumption data for the United States were obtained directly from the EIA of the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE), primarily from the Monthly Energy Review and published supplemental tables on petroleum product detail (EIA 2014). The EIA does not include territories in its national energy statistics, so fuel consumption data for territories were collected separately from EIA's International Energy Statistics (EIA 2012) and Jacobs (2010).⁷⁵

For consistency of reporting, the IPCC has recommended that countries report energy data using the International Energy Agency (IEA) reporting convention and/or IEA data. Data in the IEA format are presented "top down"—that is, energy consumption for fuel types and categories are estimated from energy production data (accounting for imports, exports, stock changes, and losses). The resulting quantities are referred to as "apparent consumption." The data collected in the United States by EIA on an annual basis and used in this inventory are predominantly from mid-stream or conversion energy consumers such as refiners and electric power generators. These annual surveys are supplemented with end-use energy consumption surveys, such as the Manufacturing Energy Consumption Survey, that are conducted on a periodic basis (every 4 years). These consumption data sets help inform the annual surveys to arrive at the national total and sectoral breakdowns for that total.⁷⁶

It is also important to note that U.S. fossil fuel energy statistics are generally presented using gross calorific values (GCV) (i.e., higher heating values). Fuel consumption activity data presented here have not been adjusted to correspond to international standards, which are to report energy statistics in terms of net calorific values (NCV) (i.e., lower heating values).⁷⁷

2. *Subtract uses accounted for in the Industrial Processes chapter.* Portions of the fuel consumption data for seven fuel categories—coking coal, distillate fuel, industrial other coal, petroleum coke, natural gas, residual fuel oil, and other oil—were reallocated to the industrial processes chapter, as they were consumed during non-energy related industrial activity. To make these adjustments, additional data were collected from AISI (2004 through 2013), Coffeyville (2013), U.S. Census Bureau (2011), EIA (2013c), USGS (1991 through 2011), USGS (1994 through 2011), USGS (1995, 1998, 2000 through 2002), USGS (2007), USGS (2009), USGS (2010), USGS (2011), USGS (1991 through 2010a), USGS (1991 through 2010b), USGS (2012a) and USGS (2012b).⁷⁸
3. *Adjust for conversion of fuels and exports of CO₂.* Fossil fuel consumption estimates are adjusted downward to exclude fuels created from other fossil fuels and exports of CO₂.⁷⁹ Synthetic natural gas is created from industrial coal, and is currently included in EIA statistics for both coal and natural gas. Therefore, synthetic natural gas is subtracted from energy consumption statistics.⁸⁰ Since October 2000,

⁷⁵ Fuel consumption by U.S. territories (i.e., American Samoa, Guam, Puerto Rico, U.S. Virgin Islands, Wake Island, and other U.S. Pacific Islands) is included in this report and contributed emissions of 49.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012.

⁷⁶ See IPCC Reference Approach for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in Annex 4 for a comparison of U.S. estimates using top-down and bottom-up approaches.

⁷⁷ A crude convention to convert between gross and net calorific values is to multiply the heat content of solid and liquid fossil fuels by 0.95 and gaseous fuels by 0.9 to account for the water content of the fuels. Biomass-based fuels in U.S. energy statistics, however, are generally presented using net calorific values.

⁷⁸ See sections on Iron and Steel Production and Metallurgical Coke Production, Ammonia Production and Urea Consumption, Petrochemical Production, Titanium Dioxide Production, Ferroalloy Production, Aluminum Production, and Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption in the Industrial Processes chapter.

⁷⁹ Energy statistics from EIA (2014) are already adjusted downward to account for ethanol added to motor gasoline, and biogas in natural gas.

⁸⁰ These adjustments are explained in greater detail in Annex 2.1.

the Dakota Gasification Plant has been exporting CO₂ to Canada by pipeline. Since this CO₂ is not emitted to the atmosphere in the United States, energy used to produce this CO₂ is subtracted from energy consumption statistics. To make these adjustments, additional data for ethanol were collected from EIA (2014), data for synthetic natural gas were collected from EIA (2013d), and data for CO₂ exports were collected from the Eastman Gasification Services Company (2011), Dakota Gasification Company (2006), Fitzpatrick (2002), Erickson (2003), EIA (2008) and DOE (2012).

4. *Adjust Sectoral Allocation of Distillate Fuel Oil and Motor Gasoline.* EPA had conducted a separate bottom-up analysis of transportation fuel consumption based on data from the Federal Highway Administration that indicated that the amount of distillate and motor gasoline consumption allocated to the transportation sector in the EIA statistics should be adjusted. Therefore, for these estimates, the transportation sector's distillate fuel and motor gasoline consumption was adjusted upward to match the value obtained from the bottom-up analysis. As the total distillate and motor gasoline consumption estimate from EIA are considered to be accurate at the national level, the distillate and motor gasoline consumption totals for the residential, commercial, and industrial sectors were adjusted downward proportionately. The data sources used in the bottom-up analysis of transportation fuel consumption include AAR (2008 through 2013), Benson (2002 through 2004), DOE (1993 through 2013), EIA (2007a), EIA (1991 through 2013), EPA (2013b), and FHWA (1996 through 2014).⁸¹
5. *Adjust for fuels consumed for non-energy uses.* U.S. aggregate energy statistics include consumption of fossil fuels for non-energy purposes. These are fossil fuels that are manufactured into plastics, asphalt, lubricants, or other products. Depending on the end-use, this can result in storage of some or all of the C contained in the fuel for a period of time. As the emission pathways of C used for non-energy purposes are vastly different than fuel combustion (since the C in these fuels ends up in products instead of being combusted), these emissions are estimated separately in the Carbon Emitted and Stored in Products from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels section in this chapter. Therefore, the amount of fuels used for non-energy purposes was subtracted from total fuel consumption. Data on non-fuel consumption was provided by EIA (2014).
6. *Subtract consumption of international bunker fuels.* According to the UNFCCC reporting guidelines emissions from international transport activities, or bunker fuels, should not be included in national totals. U.S. energy consumption statistics include these bunker fuels (e.g., distillate fuel oil, residual fuel oil, and jet fuel) as part of consumption by the transportation end-use sector, however, so emissions from international transport activities were calculated separately following the same procedures used for emissions from consumption of all fossil fuels (i.e., estimation of consumption, and determination of C content).⁸² The Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (Installations and Environment) and the Defense Energy Support Center (Defense Logistics Agency) of the U.S. Department of Defense (DoD) (DLA Energy 2013) supplied data on military jet fuel and marine fuel use. Commercial jet fuel use was obtained from FAA (2014); residual and distillate fuel use for civilian marine bunkers was obtained from DOC (1991 through 2013) for 1990 through 2001 and 2007 through 2012, and DHS (2008) for 2003 through 2006. Consumption of these fuels was subtracted from the corresponding fuels in the transportation end-use sector. Estimates of international bunker fuel emissions for the United States are discussed in detail later in the International Bunker Fuels section of this chapter.

⁸¹ The source of highway vehicle VMT and fuel consumption is FHWA's VM-1 table. In 2011, FHWA changed its methods for estimating data in the VM-1 table. These methodological changes included how vehicles are classified, moving from a system based on body-type to one that is based on wheelbase. These changes were first incorporated for the 2010 Inventory and apply to the 2007-12 time period. This resulted in large changes in VMT and fuel consumption data by vehicle class, thus leading to a shift in emissions among on-road vehicle classes. For example, the category "Passenger Cars" has been replaced by "Light-duty Vehicles-Short Wheelbase" and "Other 2 axle-4 Tire Vehicles" has been replaced by "Light-duty Vehicles, Long Wheelbase." This change in vehicle classification has moved some smaller trucks and sport utility vehicles from the light truck category to the passenger vehicle category in this emission inventory. These changes are reflected in a large drop in light-truck emissions between 2006 and 2007.

⁸² See International Bunker Fuels section in this chapter for a more detailed discussion.

7. *Determine the total C content of fuels consumed.* Total C was estimated by multiplying the amount of fuel consumed by the amount of C in each fuel. This total C estimate defines the maximum amount of C that could potentially be released to the atmosphere if all of the C in each fuel was converted to CO₂. The C content coefficients used by the United States were obtained from EIA's Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 2008 (EIA 2009a), and an EPA analysis of C content coefficients used in the mandatory reporting rule (EPA 2010a). A discussion of the methodology used to develop the C content coefficients are presented in Annexes 2.1 and 2.2.
8. *Estimate CO₂ Emissions.* Total CO₂ emissions are the product of the adjusted energy consumption (from the previous methodology steps 1 through 6), the C content of the fuels consumed, and the fraction of C that is oxidized. The fraction oxidized was assumed to be 100 percent for petroleum, coal, and natural gas based on guidance in IPCC (2006) (see Annex 2.1).
9. *Allocate transportation emissions by vehicle type.* This report provides a more detailed accounting of emissions from transportation because it is such a large consumer of fossil fuels in the United States. For fuel types other than jet fuel, fuel consumption data by vehicle type and transportation mode were used to allocate emissions by fuel type calculated for the transportation end-use sector.
 - For on-road vehicles, annual estimates of combined motor gasoline and diesel fuel consumption by vehicle category were obtained from FHWA (1996 through 2014); for each vehicle category, the percent gasoline, diesel, and other (e.g., CNG, LPG) fuel consumption are estimated using data from DOE (1993 through 2013).
 - For non-road vehicles, activity data were obtained from AAR (2008 through 2013), APTA (2007 through 2013), APTA (2006), BEA (1991 through 2012), Benson (2002 through 2004), DOE (1993 through 2013), DLA Energy (2013), DOC (1991 through 2014), DOT (1991 through 2013), EIA (2009a), EIA (2013c), EIA (2002), EIA (1991 through 2013), EPA (2013b), and Gaffney (2007).
 - For jet fuel used by aircraft, CO₂ emissions from commercial aircraft were developed by the U.S. Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) using a Tier 3B methodology, consistent with the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (see Annex 3.3). CO₂ emissions from other aircraft were calculated directly based on reported consumption of fuel as reported by EIA. Allocation to domestic military uses was made using DoD data (see Annex 3.8). General aviation jet fuel consumption is calculated as the remainder of total jet fuel use (as determined by EIA) net all other jet fuel use as determined by FAA and DoD. For more information, see Annex 3.2.

Heat contents and densities were obtained from EIA (2013a) and USAF (1998).⁸³

Box 3-4: Uses of Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program Data and Improvements in Reporting Emissions from Industrial Sector Fossil Fuel Combustion

As described in the calculation methodology, total fossil fuel consumption for each year is based on aggregated end-use sector consumption published by the EIA. The availability of facility-level combustion emissions through EPA's Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP) has provided an opportunity to better characterize the industrial sector's energy consumption and emissions in the United States, through a disaggregation of EIA's industrial sector fuel consumption data from select industries.

For EPA's GHGRP 2010, 2011, and 2012 reporting years, facility-level fossil fuel combustion emissions reported through the GHGRP were categorized and distributed to specific industry types by utilizing facility-reported NAICS codes (as published by the U.S. Census Bureau), and associated data available from EIA's 2010 Manufacturing Energy Consumption Survey (MECS). As noted previously in this report, the definitions and provisions for reporting fuel types in EPA's GHGRP include some differences from the inventory's use of EIA national fuel

⁸³ For a more detailed description of the data sources used for the analysis of the transportation end use sector see the Mobile Combustion (excluding CO₂) and International Bunker Fuels sections of the Energy chapter, Annex 3.2, and Annex 3.8.

statistics to meet the UNFCCC reporting guidelines. The IPCC has provided guidance on aligning facility-level reported fuels and fuel types published in national energy statistics, which guided this exercise.⁸⁴

This year's effort represents an attempt to align, reconcile, and coordinate the facility-level reporting of fossil fuel combustion emissions under EPA's GHGRP with the national-level approach presented in this report. Consistent with recommendations for reporting the inventory to the UNFCCC, progress was made on certain fuel types for specific industries and has been included in the Common Reporting Format (CRF) tables that are submitted to the UNFCCC along with this report.⁸⁵ However, a full mapping was not completed this year due to fuel category differences between national statistics published by EIA and facility-level reported GHGRP data. Furthermore, given that calendar year 2010 was the first year in which emissions data were reported to EPA's GHGRP, the current inventory's examination only focused on 2010, 2011 and, 2012. For the current exercise, the efforts in reconciling fuels focused on standard, common fuel types (e.g., natural gas, distillate fuel oil, etc.) where the fuels in EIA's national statistics aligned well with facility-level GHGRP data. For these reasons, the current information presented in the CRF tables should be viewed as an initial attempt at this exercise. Additional efforts will be made for future inventory reports to improve the mapping of fuel types, and examine ways to reconcile and coordinate any differences between facility-level data and national statistics. Additionally, in order to expand this effort through the full time series presented in this report, further analyses will be conducted linking GHGRP facility-level reporting with the information published by EIA in its MECS data, other available MECS survey years, and any further informative sources of data. It is believed that the current analysis has led to improvements in the presentation of data in the Inventory, but further work will be conducted, and future improvements will be realized in subsequent Inventory reports.

Additionally, to assist in the disaggregation of industrial fuel consumption, EIA will now synthesize energy consumption data using the same procedure as is used for the last historical (benchmark) year of the Annual Energy Outlook (AEO). This procedure reorganizes the most recent data from the Manufacturing Energy Consumption Survey (MECS) (conducted every four years) into the nominal data submission year using the same energy-economy integrated model used to produce the AEO projections, the National Energy Modeling System (NEMS). EIA believes this "nowcasting" technique provides an appropriate estimate of energy consumption for the CRF.

To address gaps in the time series, EIA performs a NEMS model projection, using the MECS baseline sub-sector energy consumption. The NEMS model accounts for changes in factors that influence industrial sector energy consumption, and has access to data which may be more recent than MECS, such as industrial sub-sector macro industrial output (i.e., shipments) and fuel prices. By evaluating the impact of these factors on industrial subsector energy consumption, NEMS can anticipate changes to the energy shares occurring post-MECS and can provide a way to appropriately disaggregate the energy-related emissions data into the CRF.

While the fuel consumption values for the various manufacturing sub-sectors are not directly surveyed for all years, they represent EIA's best estimate of historical consumption values for non-MECS years. Moreover, as an integral part of each AEO publication, this synthetic data series is likely to be maintained consistent with all available EIA and non-EIA data sources even as the underlying data sources evolve for both manufacturing and non-manufacturing industries alike.

Other sectors' fuel consumption (commercial, residential, transportation) will be benchmarked with the latest aggregate values from the Monthly Energy Review.⁸⁶ EIA will work with the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency to back cast these values to 1990.

⁸⁴ See Section 4 "Use of Facility-Level Data in Good Practice National Greenhouse Gas Inventories" of the IPCC meeting report, and specifically the section on using facility-level data in conjunction with energy data, at <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

⁸⁵ See <<http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/ghgemissions/usinventoryreport.html>>.

⁸⁶ See <<http://www.eia.gov/totalenergy/data/monthly/>>.

Box 3-5: Carbon Intensity of U.S. Energy Consumption

Fossil fuels are the dominant source of energy in the United States, and CO₂ is the dominant greenhouse gas emitted as a product from their combustion. Energy-related CO₂ emissions are impacted by not only lower levels of energy consumption but also by lowering the C intensity of the energy sources employed (e.g., fuel switching from coal to natural gas). The amount of C emitted from the combustion of fossil fuels is dependent upon the C content of the fuel and the fraction of that C that is oxidized. Fossil fuels vary in their average C content, ranging from about 53 Tg CO₂ Eq./QBTu for natural gas to upwards of 95 Tg CO₂ Eq./QBTu for coal and petroleum coke.⁸⁷ In general, the C content per unit of energy of fossil fuels is the highest for coal products, followed by petroleum, and then natural gas. The overall C intensity of the U.S. economy is thus dependent upon the quantity and combination of fuels and other energy sources employed to meet demand.

Table 3-15 provides a time series of the C intensity for each sector of the U.S. economy. The time series incorporates only the energy consumed from the direct combustion of fossil fuels in each sector. For example, the C intensity for the residential sector does not include the energy from or emissions related to the consumption of electricity for lighting. Looking only at this direct consumption of fossil fuels, the residential sector exhibited the lowest C intensity, which is related to the large percentage of its energy derived from natural gas for heating. The C intensity of the commercial sector has predominantly declined since 1990 as commercial businesses shift away from petroleum to natural gas. The industrial sector was more dependent on petroleum and coal than either the residential or commercial sectors, and thus had higher C intensities over this period. The C intensity of the transportation sector was closely related to the C content of petroleum products (e.g., motor gasoline and jet fuel, both around 70 Tg CO₂ Eq./EJ), which were the primary sources of energy. Lastly, the electricity generation sector had the highest C intensity due to its heavy reliance on coal for generating electricity.

Table 3-15: Carbon Intensity from Direct Fossil Fuel Combustion by Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq./QBTu)

Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Residential ^a	57.4	56.6	55.9	55.9	55.8	55.7	55.6
Commercial ^a	59.2	57.5	56.8	56.9	56.8	56.6	56.1
Industrial ^a	64.3	64.3	63.5	63.0	62.9	62.4	61.9
Transportation ^a	71.1	71.4	71.6	71.5	71.5	71.5	71.5
Electricity Generation ^b	87.3	85.8	84.9	83.7	83.6	82.9	79.9
U.S. Territories ^c	73.0	73.4	73.3	73.1	73.1	73.1	73.1
All Sectors^c	73.0	73.5	73.1	72.4	72.4	72.0	70.9

^a Does not include electricity or renewable energy consumption.

^b Does not include electricity produced using nuclear or renewable energy.

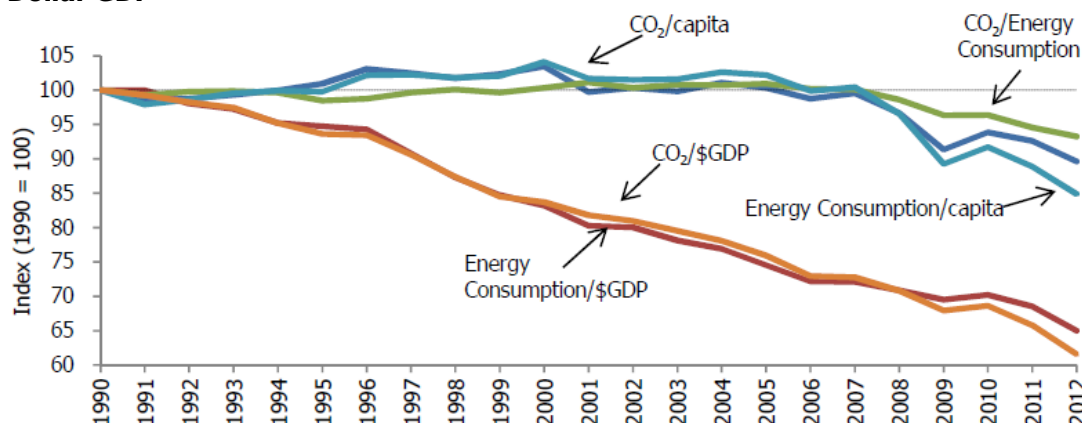
^c Does not include nuclear or renewable energy consumption.

Note: Excludes non-energy fuel use emissions and consumption.

Over the twenty-three-year period of 1990 through 2012, however, the C intensity of U.S. energy consumption has been fairly constant, as the proportion of fossil fuels used by the individual sectors has not changed significantly. Per capita energy consumption fluctuated little from 1990 to 2007, but in 2012 was approximately 10.4 percent below levels in 1990 (see Figure 3-14). Due to a general shift from a manufacturing-based economy to a service-based economy, as well as overall increases in efficiency, energy consumption and energy-related CO₂ emissions per dollar of gross domestic product (GDP) have both declined since 1990 (BEA 2013).

⁸⁷ One exajoule (EJ) is equal to 10¹⁸ joules or 0.9478 QBTu.

Figure 3-14: U.S. Energy Consumption and Energy-Related CO₂ Emissions Per Capita and Per Dollar GDP



C intensity estimates were developed using nuclear and renewable energy data from EIA (2012a), EPA (2010a), and fossil fuel consumption data as discussed above and presented in Annex 2.1.

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

For estimates of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, the amount of CO₂ emitted is directly related to the amount of fuel consumed, the fraction of the fuel that is oxidized, and the carbon content of the fuel. Therefore, a careful accounting of fossil fuel consumption by fuel type, average carbon contents of fossil fuels consumed, and production of fossil fuel-based products with long-term carbon storage should yield an accurate estimate of CO₂ emissions.

Nevertheless, there are uncertainties in the consumption data, carbon content of fuels and products, and carbon oxidation efficiencies. For example, given the same primary fuel type (e.g., coal, petroleum, or natural gas), the amount of carbon contained in the fuel per unit of useful energy can vary. For the United States, however, the impact of these uncertainties on overall CO₂ emission estimates is believed to be relatively small. See, for example, Marland and Pippin (1990).

Although statistics of total fossil fuel and other energy consumption are relatively accurate, the allocation of this consumption to individual end-use sectors (i.e., residential, commercial, industrial, and transportation) is less certain. For example, for some fuels the sectoral allocations are based on price rates (i.e., tariffs), but a commercial establishment may be able to negotiate an industrial rate or a small industrial establishment may end up paying an industrial rate, leading to a misallocation of emissions. Also, the deregulation of the natural gas industry and the more recent deregulation of the electric power industry have likely led to some minor problems in collecting accurate energy statistics as firms in these industries have undergone significant restructuring.

To calculate the total CO₂ emission estimate from energy-related fossil fuel combustion, the amount of fuel used in these non-energy production processes were subtracted from the total fossil fuel consumption. The amount of CO₂ emissions resulting from non-energy related fossil fuel use has been calculated separately and reported in the Carbon Emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels section of this report. These factors all contribute to the uncertainty in the CO₂ estimates. Detailed discussions on the uncertainties associated with C emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels can be found within that section of this chapter.

Various sources of uncertainty surround the estimation of emissions from international bunker fuels, which are subtracted from the U.S. totals (see the detailed discussions on these uncertainties provided in the International Bunker Fuels section of this chapter). Another source of uncertainty is fuel consumption by U.S. territories. The United States does not collect energy statistics for its territories at the same level of detail as for the fifty states and the District of Columbia. Therefore, estimating both emissions and bunker fuel consumption by these territories is difficult.

Uncertainties in the emission estimates presented above also result from the data used to allocate CO₂ emissions from the transportation end-use sector to individual vehicle types and transport modes. In many cases, bottom-up estimates of fuel consumption by vehicle type do not match aggregate fuel-type estimates from EIA. Further research is planned to improve the allocation into detailed transportation end-use sector emissions.

The uncertainty analysis was performed by primary fuel type for each end-use sector, using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique, with @RISK software. For this uncertainty estimation, the inventory estimation model for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion was integrated with the relevant variables from the inventory estimation model for International Bunker Fuels, to realistically characterize the interaction (or endogenous correlation) between the variables of these two models. About 120 input variables were modeled for CO₂ from energy-related Fossil Fuel Combustion (including about 10 for non-energy fuel consumption and about 20 for International Bunker Fuels).

In developing the uncertainty estimation model, uniform distributions were assumed for all activity-related input variables and emission factors, based on the SAIC/EIA (2001) report.⁸⁸ Triangular distributions were assigned for the oxidization factors (or combustion efficiencies). The uncertainty ranges were assigned to the input variables based on the data reported in SAIC/EIA (2001) and on conversations with various agency personnel.⁸⁹

The uncertainty ranges for the activity-related input variables were typically asymmetric around their inventory estimates; the uncertainty ranges for the emissions factors were symmetric. Bias (or systematic uncertainties) associated with these variables accounted for much of the uncertainties associated with these variables (SAIC/EIA 2001).⁹⁰ For purposes of this uncertainty analysis, each input variable was simulated 10,000 times through Monte Carlo Sampling.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-16. Fossil fuel combustion CO₂ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 4,958.2 and 5,314.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 2 percent below to 5 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 5,072.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-16: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Energy-related Fossil Fuel Combustion by Fuel Type and Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Fuel/Sector	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Coal^b	1,593.0	1,538.9	1,742.9	-3%	9%
Residential	NE	NE	NE	NE	NE
Commercial	4.1	3.9	4.7	-5%	15%
Industrial	74.3	70.8	85.9	-5%	16%
Transportation	NE	NE	NE	NA	NA
Electricity Generation	1,511.2	1,453.1	1,655.9	-4%	10%
U.S. Territories	3.4	3.0	4.0	-12%	19%
Natural Gas^b	1,351.2	1,336.5	1,412.8	-1%	5%
Residential	224.8	218.5	240.6	-3%	7%

⁸⁸ SAIC/EIA (2001) characterizes the underlying probability density function for the input variables as a combination of uniform and normal distributions (the former to represent the bias component and the latter to represent the random component). However, for purposes of the current uncertainty analysis, it was determined that uniform distribution was more appropriate to characterize the probability density function underlying each of these variables.

⁸⁹ In the SAIC/EIA (2001) report, the quantitative uncertainty estimates were developed for each of the three major fossil fuels used within each end-use sector; the variations within the sub-fuel types within each end-use sector were not modeled. However, for purposes of assigning uncertainty estimates to the sub-fuel type categories within each end-use sector in the current uncertainty analysis, SAIC/EIA (2001)-reported uncertainty estimates were extrapolated.

⁹⁰ Although, in general, random uncertainties are the main focus of statistical uncertainty analysis, when the uncertainty estimates are elicited from experts, their estimates include both random and systematic uncertainties. Hence, both these types of uncertainties are represented in this uncertainty analysis.

Commercial	156.9	152.5	167.9	-3%	7%
Industrial	434.7	421.5	465.8	-3%	7%
Transportation	41.2	40.0	44.1	-3%	7%
Electricity Generation	492.2	478.1	517.3	-3%	5%
U.S. Territories	1.4	1.3	1.7	-12%	17%
Petroleum^b	2,127.6	1,996.2	2,253.5	-6%	6%
Residential	64.1	60.5	67.5	-6%	5%
Commercial	36.4	34.6	38.1	-5%	5%
Industrial	265.2	212.7	313.1	-20%	18%
Transportation	1,698.3	1,585.3	1,811.7	-7%	7%
Electric Utilities	18.8	17.9	20.3	-5%	8%
U.S. Territories	44.7	41.3	49.7	-8%	11%
Total (excluding Geothermal)^b	5,071.9	4,957.8	5,314.4	-2%	5%
Geothermal	0.4	NE	NE	NA	NA
Total (including Geothermal)^{b,c}	5,072.3	4,958.2	5,314.8	-2%	5%

NA (Not Applicable)

NE (Not Estimated)

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^b The low and high estimates for total emissions were calculated separately through simulations and, hence, the low and high emission estimates for the sub-source categories do not sum to total emissions.

^c Geothermal emissions added for reporting purposes, but an uncertainty analysis was not performed for CO₂ emissions from geothermal production.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and methodology used for estimating CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion in the United States. Emission totals for the different sectors and fuels were compared and trends were investigated to determine whether any corrective actions were needed. Minor corrective actions were taken.

Recalculations Discussion

The Energy Information Administration (EIA 2014) updated energy consumption statistics across the time series relative to the previous Inventory. One such revision is the inclusion of past residential coal estimates into commercial coal statistics for the years 2008 to 2011. These revisions primarily impacted the previous emission estimates from 2008 to 2011; however, additional revisions to industrial and transportation petroleum consumption as well as industrial natural gas and coal consumption impacted emission estimates across the time series. Overall, these changes resulted in an average annual increase of 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.1 percent) in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion for the period 1990 through 2011, relative to the previous report.

Planned Improvements

To reduce uncertainty of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion estimates, efforts will be taken to work with EIA and other agencies to improve the quality of the U.S. territories data. This improvement is not all-inclusive, and is part of an ongoing analysis and efforts to continually improve the CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion estimates. In addition, further expert elicitation may be conducted to better quantify the total uncertainty associated with emissions from this source.

The availability of facility-level combustion emissions through EPA's (GHGRP) will continue to be examined to help better characterize the industrial sector's energy consumption in the United States, and further classify business

establishments according to industrial economic activity type. Most methodologies used in EPA's GHGRP are consistent with IPCC, though for EPA's GHGRP, facilities collect detailed information specific to their operations according to detailed measurement standards, which may differ with the more aggregated data collected for the Inventory to estimate total, national U.S. emissions. In addition, and unlike the reporting requirements for this chapter under the UNFCCC reporting guidelines, some facility-level fuel combustion emissions reported under the GHGRP may also include industrial process emissions.⁹¹ In line with UNFCCC reporting guidelines, fuel combustion emissions are included in this chapter, while process emissions are included in the Industrial Processes chapter of this report. In examining data from EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion category, particular attention will also be made to ensure time series consistency, as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP are not available for all inventory years as reported in this inventory. Additional analyses will be conducted to align reported facility-level fuel types and IPCC fuel types per the national energy statistics. Additional work will commence to ensure CO₂ emissions from biomass are separated in the facility-level reported data, and maintaining consistency with national energy statistics provided by EIA. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will continue to be relied upon.⁹²

Another planned improvement is to develop improved estimates of domestic waterborne fuel consumption. The inventory estimates for residual and distillate fuel used by ships and boats is based in part on data on bunker fuel use from the U.S. Department of Commerce. Domestic fuel consumption is estimated by subtracting fuel sold for international use from the total sold in the United States. It may be possible to more accurately estimate domestic fuel use and emissions by using detailed data on marine ship activity. The feasibility of using domestic marine activity data to improve the estimates is currently being investigated.

CH₄ and N₂O from Stationary Combustion

Methodology

Methane and N₂O emissions from stationary combustion were estimated by multiplying fossil fuel and wood consumption data by emission factors (by sector and fuel type for industrial, residential, commercial, and U.S. Territories; and by fuel and technology type for the electric power sector). Beginning with the current Inventory report, the electric power sector utilizes a Tier 2 methodology, whereas all other sectors utilize a Tier 1 methodology. The activity data and emission factors used are described in the following subsections.

Industrial, Residential, Commercial, and U.S. Territories

National coal, natural gas, fuel oil, and wood consumption data were grouped by sector: industrial, commercial, residential, and U.S. territories. For the CH₄ and N₂O estimates, wood consumption data for the United States was obtained from EIA's Monthly Energy Review (EIA 2014). Fuel consumption data for coal, natural gas, and fuel oil for the United States were also obtained from EIA's Monthly Energy Review and unpublished supplemental tables on petroleum product detail (EIA 2012). Because the United States does not include territories in its national energy statistics, fuel consumption data for territories were provided separately by EIA's International Energy Statistics (EIA 2012) and Jacobs (2010).⁹³ Fuel consumption for the industrial sector was adjusted to subtract out construction and agricultural use, which is reported under mobile sources.⁹⁴ Construction and agricultural fuel use was obtained from EPA (2010a). Estimates for wood biomass consumption for fuel combustion do not include wood wastes, liquors, municipal solid waste, tires, etc., that are reported as biomass by EIA. Tier 1 default emission

⁹¹ See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>>.

⁹² See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

⁹³ U.S. territories data also include combustion from mobile activities because data to allocate territories' energy use were unavailable. For this reason, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from combustion by U.S. territories are only included in the stationary combustion totals.

⁹⁴ Though emissions from construction and farm use occur due to both stationary and mobile sources, detailed data was not available to determine the magnitude from each. Currently, these emissions are assumed to be predominantly from mobile sources.

factors for these three end-use sectors were provided by the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) which, according to this guidance, “are based on the *IPCC 1996 Guidelines*.” U.S. territories’ emission factors were estimated using the U.S. emission factors for the primary sector in which each fuel was combusted.

Electric Power Sector

The electric power sector now uses a Tier 2 emission estimation methodology as fuel consumption for the electricity generation sector by control-technology type was obtained from EPA’s Acid Rain Program Dataset (EPA 2013). This combustion technology- and fuel-use data was available by facility from 1996 to 2012. The Tier 2 emission factors used were taken from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006), which in turn are based on emission factors published by EPA.

Since there was a difference between the EPA (2013) and EIA (2014) total energy consumption estimates, the remaining energy consumption from EIA (2014) was apportioned to each combustion technology type and fuel combination using a ratio of energy consumption by technology type from 1996 to 2012.

Energy consumption estimates were not available from 1990 to 1995 in the EPA (2013) dataset, and as a result, consumption was calculated using total electric power consumption from EIA (2014) and the ratio of combustion technology and fuel types from EPA (2013). The consumption estimates from 1990 to 1995 were estimated by applying the 1996 consumption ratio by combustion technology type to the total EIA consumption for each year from 1990 to 1995. Emissions were estimated by multiplying fossil fuel and wood consumption by technology- and fuel-specific Tier 2 IPCC emission factors.

Lastly, there were significant differences between wood biomass consumption in the electric power sector between the EPA (2013) and EIA (2014) datasets. The higher wood biomass consumption from EIA (2014) in the electric power sector was distributed to the residential, commercial, and industrial sectors according to their percent share of wood biomass energy consumption calculated from EIA (2013a).

More detailed information on the methodology for calculating emissions from stationary combustion, including emission factors and activity data, is provided in Annex 3.1.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Methane emission estimates from stationary sources exhibit high uncertainty, primarily due to difficulties in calculating emissions from wood combustion (i.e., fireplaces and wood stoves). The estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions presented are based on broad indicators of emissions (i.e., fuel use multiplied by an aggregate emission factor for different sectors), rather than specific emission processes (i.e., by combustion technology and type of emission control).

An uncertainty analysis was performed by primary fuel type for each end-use sector, using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique, with @RISK software.

The uncertainty estimation model for this source category was developed by integrating the CH₄ and N₂O stationary source inventory estimation models with the model for CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion to realistically characterize the interaction (or endogenous correlation) between the variables of these three models. About 55 input variables were simulated for the uncertainty analysis of this source category (about 20 from the CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion inventory estimation model and about 35 from the stationary source inventory models).

In developing the uncertainty estimation model, uniform distribution was assumed for all activity-related input variables and N₂O emission factors, based on the SAIC/EIA (2001) report.⁹⁵ For these variables, the uncertainty

⁹⁵ SAIC/EIA (2001) characterizes the underlying probability density function for the input variables as a combination of uniform and normal distributions (the former distribution to represent the bias component and the latter to represent the random component). However, for purposes of the current uncertainty analysis, it was determined that uniform distribution was more appropriate to characterize the probability density function underlying each of these variables.

ranges were assigned to the input variables based on the data reported in SAIC/EIA (2001).⁹⁶ However, the CH₄ emission factors differ from those used by EIA. Since these factors were obtained from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), uncertainty ranges were assigned based on IPCC default uncertainty estimates (IPCC 2000).

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-17. Stationary combustion CH₄ emissions in 2012 (*including biomass*) were estimated to be between 3.6 and 13.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 36 percent below to 132 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 5.7 Tg CO₂ Eq.⁹⁷ Stationary combustion N₂O emissions in 2012 (*including biomass*) were estimated to be between 17.6 and 33.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 20 percent below to 51 percent above the 2012 emissions estimate of 22.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-17: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Energy-Related Stationary Combustion, Including Biomass (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Stationary Combustion	CH ₄	5.7	3.6	13.2	-36%	+132%
Stationary Combustion	N ₂ O	22.0	17.6	33.1	-20%	+51%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

The uncertainties associated with the emission estimates of CH₄ and N₂O are greater than those associated with estimates of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion, which mainly rely on the carbon content of the fuel combusted. Uncertainties in both CH₄ and N₂O estimates are due to the fact that emissions are estimated based on emission factors representing only a limited subset of combustion conditions. For the indirect greenhouse gases, uncertainties are partly due to assumptions concerning combustion technology types, age of equipment, emission factors used, and activity data projections.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for stationary combustion was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and emission factor sources and methodology used for estimating CH₄, N₂O, and the indirect greenhouse gases from stationary combustion in the United States. Emission totals for the different sectors and fuels were compared and trends were investigated.

Recalculations Discussion

CH₄ and N₂O emissions from stationary sources (excluding CO₂) across the entire time series were revised due revised data from EIA (2014) and EPA (2013) relative to the previous Inventory. The historical data changes resulted in an average annual decrease of less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.5 percent) in CH₄ emissions from stationary

⁹⁶ In the SAIC/EIA (2001) report, the quantitative uncertainty estimates were developed for each of the three major fossil fuels used within each end-use sector; the variations within the sub-fuel types within each end-use sector were not modeled. However, for purposes of assigning uncertainty estimates to the sub-fuel type categories within each end-use sector in the current uncertainty analysis, SAIC/EIA (2001)-reported uncertainty estimates were extrapolated.

⁹⁷ The low emission estimates reported in this section have been rounded down to the nearest integer values and the high emission estimates have been rounded up to the nearest integer values.

combustion and an average annual increase of less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.1 percent) in N₂O emissions from stationary combustion for the period 1990 through 2011.

Planned Improvements

Several items are being evaluated to improve the CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from stationary combustion and to reduce uncertainty. Efforts will be taken to work with EIA and other agencies to improve the quality of the U.S. territories data. Because these data are not broken out by stationary and mobile uses, further research will be aimed at trying to allocate consumption appropriately. In addition, the uncertainty of biomass emissions will be further investigated since it was expected that the exclusion of biomass from the uncertainty estimates would reduce the uncertainty; and in actuality the exclusion of biomass increases the uncertainty. These improvements are not all-inclusive, but are part of an ongoing analysis and efforts to continually improve these stationary estimates.

Future improvements to the CH₄ and N₂O from Stationary Combustion category involve research into the availability of CH₄ and N₂O from stationary combustion data, and analyzing data reported under EPA's GHGRP. In examining data from EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for CH₄ and N₂O from Stationary Combustion category, particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency, as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP are not available for all Inventory years as reported in this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.⁹⁸

CH₄ and N₂O from Mobile Combustion

Methodology

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from mobile combustion were calculated by multiplying emission factors by measures of activity for each fuel and vehicle type (e.g., light-duty gasoline trucks). Activity data included vehicle miles traveled (VMT) for on-road vehicles and fuel consumption for non-road mobile sources. The activity data and emission factors used are described in the subsections that follow. A complete discussion of the methodology used to estimate CH₄ and N₂O emissions from mobile combustion and the emission factors used in the calculations is provided in Annex 3.2.

On-Road Vehicles

Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from gasoline and diesel on-road vehicles are based on VMT and emission factors by vehicle type, fuel type, model year, and emission control technology. Emission estimates for alternative fuel vehicles (AFVs) are based on VMT and emission factors by vehicle and fuel type.⁹⁹

Emission factors for gasoline and diesel on-road vehicles utilizing Tier 2 and Low Emission Vehicle (LEV) technologies were developed by ICF (2006b); all other gasoline and diesel on-road vehicle emissions factors were developed by ICF (2004). These factors were derived from EPA, California Air Resources Board (CARB) and Environment Canada laboratory test results of different vehicle and control technology types. The EPA, CARB and Environment Canada tests were designed following the Federal Test Procedure (FTP), which covers three separate driving segments, since vehicles emit varying amounts of greenhouse gases depending on the driving segment. These driving segments are: (1) a transient driving cycle that includes cold start and running emissions, (2) a cycle that represents running emissions only, and (3) a transient driving cycle that includes hot start and running emissions. For each test run, a bag was affixed to the tailpipe of the vehicle and the exhaust was collected; the content of this bag was then analyzed to determine quantities of gases present. The emissions characteristics of segment 2 were used to define running emissions, and subtracted from the total FTP emissions to determine start emissions. These were then recombined based upon the ratio of start to running emissions for each vehicle class

⁹⁸ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdffiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

⁹⁹ Alternative fuel and advanced technology vehicles are those that can operate using a motor fuel other than gasoline or diesel. This includes electric or other bi-fuel or dual-fuel vehicles that may be partially powered by gasoline or diesel.

from MOBILE6.2, an EPA emission factor model that predicts gram per mile emissions of CO₂, CO, HC, NO_x, and PM from vehicles under various conditions, to approximate average driving characteristics.¹⁰⁰

Emission factors for AFVs were developed by ICF (2006a) after examining Argonne National Laboratory's GREET 1.7–Transportation Fuel Cycle Model (ANL 2006) and Lipman and Delucchi (2002). These sources describe AFV emission factors in terms of ratios to conventional vehicle emission factors. Ratios of AFV to conventional vehicle emissions factors were then applied to estimated Tier 1 emissions factors from light-duty gasoline vehicles to estimate light-duty AFVs. Emissions factors for heavy-duty AFVs were developed in relation to gasoline heavy-duty vehicles. A complete discussion of the data source and methodology used to determine emission factors from AFVs is provided in Annex 3.2.

Annual VMT data for 1990 through 2012 were obtained from the Federal Highway Administration's (FHWA) Highway Performance Monitoring System database as reported in Highway Statistics (FHWA 1996 through 2014).¹⁰¹ VMT estimates were then allocated from FHWA's vehicle categories to fuel-specific vehicle categories using the calculated shares of vehicle fuel use for each vehicle category by fuel type reported in DOE (1993 through 2013) and information on total motor vehicle fuel consumption by fuel type from FHWA (1996 through 2014). VMT for AFVs were taken from Browning (2003). The age distributions of the U.S. vehicle fleet were obtained from EPA (2013c, 2000), and the average annual age-specific vehicle mileage accumulation of U.S. vehicles were obtained from EPA (2000).

Control technology and standards data for on-road vehicles were obtained from EPA's Office of Transportation and Air Quality (EPA 2007a, 2007b, 2000, 1998, and 1997) and Browning (2005). These technologies and standards are defined in Annex 3.2, and were compiled from EPA (1993, 1994a, 1994b, 1998, 1999a) and IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997).

Non-Road Vehicles

To estimate emissions from non-road vehicles, fuel consumption data were employed as a measure of activity, and multiplied by fuel-specific emission factors (in grams of N₂O and CH₄ per kilogram of fuel consumed).¹⁰² Activity data were obtained from AAR (2008 through 2013), APTA (2007 through 2013), APTA (2006), BEA (1991 through 2012), Benson (2002 through 2004), DHS (2008), DESC (2013), DOC (1991 through 2013), DOE (1993 through 2013), DOT (1991 through 2013), EIA (2008a, 2007a, 2013a, 2002), EIA (2007 through 2011), EIA (1991 through 2013), EPA (2013b), Esser (2003 through 2004), FAA (2014), FHWA (1996 through 2014), Gaffney (2007), and Whorton (2006 through 2012). Emission factors for non-road modes were taken from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) and Browning (2009).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis was conducted for the mobile source sector using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique, using @RISK software. The uncertainty analysis was performed on 2012 estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions, incorporating probability distribution functions associated with the major input variables. For the purposes of this analysis, the uncertainty was modeled for the following four major sets of input variables: (1) vehicle miles traveled (VMT) data, by on-road vehicle and fuel type and (2) emission factor data, by on-road vehicle, fuel, and control technology type, (3) fuel

¹⁰⁰ Additional information regarding the model can be found online at <<http://www.epa.gov/OMS/m6.htm>>.

¹⁰¹ The source of VMT is FHWA's VM-1 table. In 2011, FHWA changed its methods for estimating data in the VM-1 table. These methodological changes included how vehicles are classified, moving from a system based on body-type to one that is based on wheelbase. These changes were first incorporated for the 2010 Inventory and apply to the 2007-12 time period. This resulted in large changes in VMT by vehicle class, thus leading to a shift in emissions among on-road vehicle classes. For example, the category "Passenger Cars" has been replaced by "Light-duty Vehicles-Short Wheelbase" and "Other 2 axle-4 Tire Vehicles" has been replaced by "Light-duty Vehicles, Long Wheelbase." This change in vehicle classification has moved some smaller trucks and sport utility vehicles from the light truck category to the passenger vehicle category in this emission inventory. These changes are reflected in a large drop in light-truck emissions between 2006 and 2007.

¹⁰² The consumption of international bunker fuels is not included in these activity data, but is estimated separately under the International Bunker Fuels source category.

consumption, data, by non-road vehicle and equipment type, and (4) emission factor data, by non-road vehicle and equipment type.

Uncertainty analyses were not conducted for NO_x, CO, or NMVOC emissions. Emission factors for these gases have been extensively researched since emissions of these gases from motor vehicles are regulated in the United States, and the uncertainty in these emission estimates is believed to be relatively low. For more information, see Section 3.8. However, a much higher level of uncertainty is associated with CH₄ and N₂O emission factors due to limited emission test data, and because, unlike CO₂ emissions, the emission pathways of CH₄ and N₂O are highly complex.

Mobile combustion CH₄ emissions from all mobile sources in 2012 were estimated to be between 1.5 and 2.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 11 percent below to 16 percent above the corresponding 2012 emission estimate of 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. Also at a 95 percent confidence level, mobile combustion N₂O emissions from mobile sources in 2012 were estimated to be between 16.0 and 21.0 Tg CO₂ Eq., indicating a range of 3 percent below to 27 percent above the corresponding 2012 emission estimate of 16.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-18: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Mobile Sources (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mobile Sources	CH ₄	1.7	1.5	2.0	-11%	+16%
Mobile Sources	N ₂ O	16.5	16.0	21.0	-3%	+27%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

This uncertainty analysis is a continuation of a multi-year process for developing quantitative uncertainty estimates for this source category using the IPCC Tier 2 approach to uncertainty analysis. As a result, as new information becomes available, uncertainty characterization of input variables may be improved and revised. For additional information regarding uncertainty in emission estimates for CH₄ and N₂O please refer to the Uncertainty Annex.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for mobile combustion was developed and implemented. This plan is based on the IPCC-recommended QA/QC Plan. The specific plan used for mobile combustion was updated prior to collection and analysis of this current year of data. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures focused on the emission factor and activity data sources, as well as the methodology used for estimating emissions. These procedures included a qualitative assessment of the emissions estimates to determine whether they appear consistent with the most recent activity data and emission factors available. A comparison of historical emissions between the current Inventory and the previous inventory was also conducted to ensure that the changes in estimates were consistent with the changes in activity data and emission factors.

Planned Improvements

While the data used for this report represent the most accurate information available, two areas have been identified that could potentially be improved in the near term given available resources.

- Develop improved estimates of domestic waterborne fuel consumption. The inventory estimates for residual and distillate fuel used by ships and boats is based in part on data on bunker fuel use from the U.S. Department of Commerce. Domestic fuel consumption is estimated by subtracting fuel sold for international use from the total sold in the United States. It may be possible to more accurately estimate domestic fuel use and emissions by using detailed data on marine ship activity. The feasibility of using

domestic marine activity data to improve the estimates is currently being investigated.

- Continue to examine the use of EPA’s MOVES model in the development of the inventory estimates, including use for uncertainty analysis. Although the inventory uses some of the underlying data from MOVES, such as vehicle age distributions by model year, MOVES is not used directly in calculating mobile source emissions. The use of MOVES will be further explored.

3.2 Carbon Emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels (IPCC Source Category 1A)

In addition to being combusted for energy, fossil fuels are also consumed for non-energy uses (NEU) in the United States. The fuels used for these purposes are diverse, including natural gas, liquefied petroleum gases (LPG), asphalt (a viscous liquid mixture of heavy crude oil distillates), petroleum coke (manufactured from heavy oil), and coal (metallurgical) coke (manufactured from coking coal). The non-energy applications of these fuels are equally diverse, including feedstocks for the manufacture of plastics, rubber, synthetic fibers and other materials; reducing agents for the production of various metals and inorganic products; and non-energy products such as lubricants, waxes, and asphalt (IPCC 2006).

CO₂ emissions arise from non-energy uses via several pathways. Emissions may occur during the manufacture of a product, as is the case in producing plastics or rubber from fuel-derived feedstocks. Additionally, emissions may occur during the product’s lifetime, such as during solvent use. Overall, throughout the time series and across all uses, about 65 percent of the total C consumed for non-energy purposes was stored in products, and not released to the atmosphere; the remaining 35 percent was emitted.

There are several areas in which non-energy uses of fossil fuels are closely related to other parts of this Inventory. For example, some of the NEU products release CO₂ at the end of their commercial life when they are combusted after disposal; these emissions are reported separately within the Energy chapter in the Incineration of Waste source category. In addition, there is some overlap between fossil fuels consumed for non-energy uses and the fossil-derived CO₂ emissions accounted for in the Industrial Processes chapter, especially for fuels used as reducing agents. To avoid double-counting, the “raw” non-energy fuel consumption data reported by EIA are modified to account for these overlaps. There are also net exports of petrochemicals that are not completely accounted for in the EIA data, and the inventory calculations adjust for the effect of net exports on the mass of C in non-energy applications.

As shown in Table 3-19, fossil fuel emissions in 2012 from the non-energy uses of fossil fuels were 110.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., which constituted approximately 2 percent of overall fossil fuel emissions. In 2012, the consumption of fuels for non-energy uses (after the adjustments described above) was 4,373.0 TBtu, an increase of 3.7 percent since 1990 (see Table 3-20). About 56.0 Tg (205.2 Tg CO₂ Eq.) of the C in these fuels was stored, while the remaining 30.1 Tg C (110.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.) was emitted.

Table 3-19: CO₂ Emissions from Non-Energy Use Fossil Fuel Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Potential Emissions	312.1	377.4	339.4	307.5	328.4	323.3	315.7
C Stored	191.3	236.4	211.4	199.4	207.6	206.0	205.4
Emissions as a % of Potential	39%	37%	38%	35%	37%	36%	35%
Emissions	120.8	141.0	128.0	108.1	120.8	117.3	110.3

Methodology

The first step in estimating C stored in products was to determine the aggregate quantity of fossil fuels consumed for non-energy uses. The C content of these feedstock fuels is equivalent to potential emissions, or the product of consumption and the fuel-specific C content values. Both the non-energy fuel consumption and C content data were

supplied by the EIA (2013a, 2013b) (see Annex 2.1). Consumption of natural gas, LPG, pentanes plus, naphthas, other oils, and special naphtha were adjusted to account for net exports of these products that are not reflected in the raw data from EIA. Consumption values for industrial coking coal, petroleum coke, other oils, and natural gas in Table 3-20 and Table 3-21 have been adjusted to subtract non-energy uses that are included in the source categories of the Industrial Processes chapter.¹⁰³ Consumption values were also adjusted to subtract net exports of intermediary chemicals.

For the remaining non-energy uses, the quantity of C stored was estimated by multiplying the potential emissions by a storage factor.

- For several fuel types—petrochemical feedstocks (including natural gas for non-fertilizer uses, LPG, pentanes plus, naphthas, other oils, still gas, special naphtha, and industrial other coal), asphalt and road oil, lubricants, and waxes—U.S. data on C stocks and flows were used to develop C storage factors, calculated as the ratio of (a) the C stored by the fuel’s non-energy products to (b) the total C content of the fuel consumed. A lifecycle approach was used in the development of these factors in order to account for losses in the production process and during use. Because losses associated with municipal solid waste management are handled separately in this sector under the Incineration of Waste source category, the storage factors do not account for losses at the disposal end of the life cycle.
- For industrial coking coal and distillate fuel oil, storage factors were taken from IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), which in turn draws from Marland and Rotty (1984).
- For the remaining fuel types (petroleum coke, miscellaneous products, and other petroleum), IPCC does not provide guidance on storage factors, and assumptions were made based on the potential fate of C in the respective NEU products.

Table 3-20: Adjusted Consumption of Fossil Fuels for Non-Energy Uses (TBTu)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Industry	4,215.8	5,110.7	4,579.5	4,282.8	4,549.5	4,502.0	4,373.0
Industrial Coking Coal	+	80.5	29.2	6.4	64.7	60.8	122.4
Industrial Other Coal	8.2	11.9	11.9	11.9	10.3	10.3	10.3
Natural Gas to Chemical Plants	281.6	260.9	227.2	220.3	297.8	296.7	293.2
Asphalt & Road Oil	1,170.2	1,323.2	1,012.0	873.1	877.8	859.5	826.7
LPG	1,120.5	1,610.0	1,559.9	1,663.8	1,829.4	1,914.1	1,903.0
Lubricants	186.3	160.2	149.6	134.5	149.5	141.8	130.5
Pentanes Plus	117.6	95.5	75.0	61.0	75.1	26.3	43.8
Naphtha (<401 ° F)	326.3	679.5	467.1	451.0	473.4	468.9	432.9
Other Oil (>401 ° F)	662.1	499.4	598.9	392.7	405.2	340.7	240.7
Still Gas	36.7	67.7	47.3	133.9	147.8	163.6	161.1
Petroleum Coke	27.2	105.2	139.5	108.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
Special Naphtha	100.9	60.9	83.2	44.2	25.2	21.8	14.1
Distillate Fuel Oil	7.0	11.7	17.5	17.5	17.5	17.5	17.5
Waxes	33.3	31.4	19.1	12.2	17.1	15.1	15.3
Miscellaneous Products	137.8	112.8	142.0	151.8	158.7	164.7	161.6
Transportation	176.0	151.3	141.3	127.1	141.2	133.9	123.2
Lubricants	176.0	151.3	141.3	127.1	141.2	133.9	123.2
U.S. Territories	86.7	121.9	132.1	59.6	123.6	123.6	123.6
Lubricants	0.7	4.6	2.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Other Petroleum (Misc. Prod.)	86.0	117.3	129.4	58.5	122.6	122.6	122.6
Total	4,478.5	5,383.9	4,852.9	4,469.4	4,814.3	4,759.5	4,619.9

¹⁰³ These source categories include Iron and Steel Production, Lead Production, Zinc Production, Ammonia Manufacture, Carbon Black Manufacture (included in Petrochemical Production), Titanium Dioxide Production, Ferroalloy Production, Silicon Carbide Production, and Aluminum Production.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tbtu

NA: Not applicable.

Table 3-21: 2012 Adjusted Non-Energy Use Fossil Fuel Consumption, Storage, and Emissions

Sector/Fuel Type	Adjusted Non-Energy Use^a (Tbtu)	Carbon Content Coefficient (Tg C/Qbtu)	Potential Carbon (Tg C)	Storage Factor	Carbon Stored (Tg C)	Carbon Emissions (Tg C)	Carbon Emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq.)
Industry	4,373.0	NA	81.1	NA	55.5	25.6	93.9
Industrial Coking							
Coal	122.4	31.00	3.8	0.10	0.4	3.4	12.5
Industrial Other Coal	10.3	25.82	0.3	0.70	0.2	0.1	0.3
Natural Gas to							
Chemical Plants	293.2	14.47	4.2	0.70	3.0	1.3	4.7
Asphalt & Road Oil	826.7	20.55	17.0	1.00	16.9	0.1	0.3
LPG	1,903.0	17.06	32.5	0.70	22.7	9.8	35.7
Lubricants	130.5	20.20	2.6	0.09	0.2	2.4	8.8
Pentanes Plus	43.8	19.10	0.8	0.70	0.6	0.3	0.9
Naphtha (<401° F)	432.9	18.55	8.0	0.70	5.6	2.4	8.8
Other Oil (>401° F)	240.7	20.17	4.9	0.70	3.4	1.5	5.3
Still Gas	161.1	17.51	2.8	0.70	2.0	0.8	3.1
Petroleum Coke	+	27.85	+	0.30	+	+	+
Special Naphtha	14.1	19.74	0.3	0.70	0.2	0.1	0.3
Distillate Fuel Oil	17.5	20.17	0.4	0.50	0.2	0.2	0.6
Waxes	15.3	19.80	0.3	0.58	0.2	0.1	0.5
Miscellaneous							
Products	161.6	20.31	3.3	0.00	+	3.3	12.0
Transportation	123.2	NA	2.5	NA	0.2	2.3	8.3
Lubricants	123.2	20.20	2.5	0.09	0.2	2.3	8.3
U.S. Territories	123.6	NA	2.5	NA	0.2	2.2	8.2
Lubricants	1.0	20.20	0.0	0.09	+	+	0.1
Other Petroleum (Misc. Prod.)	122.6	20.00	2.5	0.10	0.2	2.2	8.1
Total	4,619.9		86.1		56.0	30.1	110.3

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tbtu

NA: Not applicable.

^aTo avoid double counting, net exports have been deducted.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Lastly, emissions were estimated by subtracting the C stored from the potential emissions (see Table 3-19). More detail on the methodology for calculating storage and emissions from each of these sources is provided in Annex 2.3.

Where storage factors were calculated specifically for the United States, data were obtained on (1) products such as asphalt, plastics, synthetic rubber, synthetic fibers, cleansers (soaps and detergents), pesticides, food additives, antifreeze and deicers (glycols), and silicones; and (2) industrial releases including energy recovery, Toxics Release Inventory (TRI) releases, hazardous waste incineration, and volatile organic compound, solvent, and non-combustion CO emissions. Data were taken from a variety of industry sources, government reports, and expert communications. Sources include EPA reports and databases such as compilations of air emission factors (EPA 2001), *National Emissions Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emissions Trends Data* (EPA 2013a), *Toxics Release Inventory, 1998* (2000b), *Biennial Reporting System* (EPA 2004, 2009), *Resource Conservation and Recovery Act Information System* (EPA 2013c), and pesticide sales and use estimates (EPA 1998, 1999, 2002, 2004, 2011); the EIA Manufacturer's Energy Consumption Survey (MECS) (EIA 1994, 1997, 2001, 2005, 2010, 2013b); the National Petrochemical & Refiners Association (NPRRA 2002); the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1999, 2004, 2009); Bank of Canada (2012, 2013); Financial Planning Association (2006); INEGI (2006); the United States International Trade Commission (1990-2013); Gosselin, Smith, and Hodge (1984); EPA's Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) Facts

and Figures (EPA 2013b; 2014); the Rubber Manufacturers' Association (RMA 2009, 2011); the International Institute of Synthetic Rubber Products (IISRP 2000, 2003); the Fiber Economics Bureau (FEB 2001-2013); and the American Chemistry Council (ACC 2003-2011, 2012, 2013). Specific data sources are listed in full detail in Annex 2.3.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

An uncertainty analysis was conducted to quantify the uncertainty surrounding the estimates of emissions and storage factors from non-energy uses. This analysis, performed using @RISK software and the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 methodology (Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique), provides for the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the inventory estimate. The results presented below provide the 95 percent confidence interval, the range of values within which emissions are likely to fall, for this source category.

As noted above, the non-energy use analysis is based on U.S.-specific storage factors for (1) feedstock materials (natural gas, LPG, pentanes plus, naphthas, other oils, still gas, special naphthas, and other industrial coal), (2) asphalt, (3) lubricants, and (4) waxes. For the remaining fuel types (the “other” category in Table 3-20 and Table 3-21), the storage factors were taken directly from the *IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*, where available, and otherwise assumptions were made based on the potential fate of carbon in the respective NEU products. To characterize uncertainty, five separate analyses were conducted, corresponding to each of the five categories. In all cases, statistical analyses or expert judgments of uncertainty were not available directly from the information sources for all the activity variables; thus, uncertainty estimates were determined using assumptions based on source category knowledge.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-22 (emissions) and Table 3-23 (storage factors). Carbon emitted from non-energy uses of fossil fuels in 2012 was estimated to be between 87.6 and 149.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 21 percent below to 35 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 110.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. The uncertainty in the emission estimates is a function of uncertainty in both the quantity of fuel used for non-energy purposes and the storage factor.

Table 3-22: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Feedstocks	CO ₂	59.2	45.8	104.0	23%	76%
Asphalt	CO ₂	0.3	0.1	0.6	-57%	123%
Lubricants	CO ₂	17.1	14.2	19.8	-17%	16%
Waxes	CO ₂	0.5	0.3	0.8	-28%	62%
Other	CO ₂	33.3	18.8	35.0	-44%	5%
Total	CO₂	110.3	87.6	149.1	-21%	35%

^aRange of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Table 3-23: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Storage Factors of Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels (Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Storage		Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
		Factor (%)	Uncertainty Range (%)		Uncertainty Range (% Relative)		
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Feedstocks	CO ₂	70%	56%	72%	-19%	2%	
Asphalt	CO ₂	100%	99%	100%	-1%	0%	
Lubricants	CO ₂	9%	4%	17%	-57%	91%	
Waxes	CO ₂	58%	49%	71%	-15%	22%	
Other	CO ₂	8%	8%	47%	0%	481%	

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval, as a percentage of the inventory value (also expressed in percent terms).

In Table 3-23, feedstocks and asphalt contribute least to overall storage factor uncertainty on a percentage basis. Although the feedstocks category—the largest use category in terms of total carbon flows—appears to have tight confidence limits, this is to some extent an artifact of the way the uncertainty analysis was structured. As discussed in Annex 2.3, the storage factor for feedstocks is based on an analysis of six fates that result in long-term storage (e.g., plastics production), and eleven that result in emissions (e.g., volatile organic compound emissions). Rather than modeling the total uncertainty around all of these fate processes, the current analysis addresses only the storage fates, and assumes that all C that is not stored is emitted. As the production statistics that drive the storage values are relatively well-characterized, this approach yields a result that is probably biased toward understating uncertainty.

As is the case with the other uncertainty analyses discussed throughout this document, the uncertainty results above address only those factors that can be readily quantified. More details on the uncertainty analysis are provided in Annex 2.3.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for non-energy uses of fossil fuels was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis for non-energy uses involving petrochemical feedstocks and for imports and exports. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and methodology for estimating the fate of C (in terms of storage and emissions) across the various end-uses of fossil C. Emission and storage totals for the different subcategories were compared, and trends across the time series were analyzed to determine whether any corrective actions were needed. Corrective actions were taken to rectify minor errors and to improve the transparency of the calculations, facilitating future QA/QC.

For petrochemical import and export data, special attention was paid to NAICS numbers and titles to verify that none had changed or been removed. Import and export totals were compared for 2011 as well as their trends across the time series.

Petrochemical input data reported by EIA will continue to be investigated in an attempt to address an input/output discrepancy in the NEU model. Since 2001, the C accounted for in the feedstocks C balance outputs (i.e., storage plus emissions) exceeds C inputs. Prior to 2001, the C balance inputs exceed outputs. Starting in 2001 through 2009, outputs exceeded inputs. In 2010 and 2011, inputs exceeded outputs, and in 2012, outputs slightly exceeded inputs. A portion of this discrepancy has been reduced (see Recalculations Discussion, below) and two strategies have been developed to address the remaining portion (see Planned Improvements, below).

Recalculations Discussion

Relative to the previous Inventory, emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels decreased by an average of 3.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.3 percent) across the entire time series. Changes ranged from an increase of about 3 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to a decrease of about 13 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009. The main catalyst for these recalculations was changes to historic fossil fuel consumption input data acquired from the Energy Information Agency (EIA). The EIA annually revises its fossil fuel consumption estimates, which may affect historic Inventory emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels. Since the methodology for calculating emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels remained the same relative to the previous inventory, changes to consumption input data is the primary cause of the recalculations. Overall, the net effect of these changes was a slight decrease in emission estimates across the entire time series. In addition, NEI released updated data in December 2013, which included new data through 2011 and updated data for previous years, and MSW Facts and Figures data for 2012 was released in February 2014. Some of the previous years' data was updated in this version.

Planned Improvements

There are several improvements planned for the future:

- More accurate accounting of C in petrochemical feedstocks. EPA has worked with EIA to determine the cause of input/output discrepancies in the C mass balance contained within the NEU model. In the future, two strategies to reduce or eliminate this discrepancy will continue to be pursued. First, accounting of C in imports and exports will be improved. The import/export adjustment methodology will be examined to ensure that net exports of intermediaries such as ethylene and propylene are fully accounted for. Second, reconsider the use of top-down C input calculation in estimating emissions will be reconsidered. Alternative approaches that rely more substantially on the bottom-up C output calculation will be considered instead.
- Response to potential changes in NEU input data. In 2013 EIA initiated implementation of new data reporting definitions for Natural Gas Liquids (NGL) and Liquefied Petroleum Gases (LPG); the new definitions may affect the characterization of the input data that EIA provides for the NEU model and may therefore result in the need for changes to the NEU methodology. EIA also obtains and applies proprietary data for LPG inputs that are not directly applied as NEU input data because the data are proprietary. The potential use of the proprietary data (in an aggregated, non-proprietary form) as inputs to the NEU model will be investigated with EIA.
- Improving the uncertainty analysis. Most of the input parameter distributions are based on professional judgment rather than rigorous statistical characterizations of uncertainty.
- Better characterizing flows of fossil C. Additional fates may be researched, including the fossil C load in organic chemical wastewaters, plasticizers, adhesives, films, paints, and coatings. There is also a need to further clarify the treatment of fuel additives and backflows (especially methyl tert-butyl ether, MTBE).
- Reviewing the trends in fossil fuel consumption for non-energy uses. Annual consumption for several fuel types is highly variable across the time series, including industrial coking coal and other petroleum (miscellaneous products). A better understanding of these trends will be pursued to identify any mischaracterized or misreported fuel consumption for non-energy uses. For example, “miscellaneous products” category includes miscellaneous products that are not reported elsewhere in the EIA data set. The EIA does not have firm data concerning the amounts of various products that are being reported in the “miscellaneous products” category, however, EIA has indicated that recovered sulfur from petroleum and natural gas processing, and potentially also carbon black feedstock could be reported in this category. Recovered sulfur would not be reported in the NEU calculation or elsewhere in the inventory.
- Updating the average C content of solvents was researched, since the entire time series depends on one year's worth of solvent composition data. Unfortunately, the data on C emissions from solvents that were readily available do not provide composition data for all categories of solvent emissions and also have conflicting definitions for volatile organic compounds, the source of emissive C in solvents. Additional sources of solvents data will be identified in order to update the C content assumptions.

- Updating the average C content of cleansers (soaps and detergents) was researched; although production and consumption data for cleansers are published every 5 years by the Census Bureau, the composition (C content) of cleansers has not been recently updated. Recently available composition data sources may facilitate updating the average C content for this category.
- Revising the methodology for consumption, production, and C content of plastics was researched; because of recent changes to the type of data publicly available for plastics, the NEU model for plastics applies data obtained from personal communications. Potential revisions to the plastics methodology to account for the recent changes in published data will be investigated.
- Although U.S.-specific storage factors have been developed for feedstocks, asphalt, lubricants, and waxes, default values from IPCC are still used for two of the non-energy fuel types (industrial coking coal, distillate oil), and broad assumptions are being used for miscellaneous products and other petroleum. Over the long term, there are plans to improve these storage factors by analyzing C fate similar to those described in Annex 2.3 or deferring to more updated default storage factors from IPCC where available.

3.3 Incineration of Waste (IPCC Source Category 1A1a)

Incineration is used to manage about 7 to 19 percent of the solid wastes generated in the United States, depending on the source of the estimate and the scope of materials included in the definition of solid waste (EPA 2000, Goldstein and Matdes 2001, Kaufman et al. 2004, Simmons et al. 2006, van Haaren et al. 2010). In the context of this section, waste includes all municipal solid waste (MSW) as well as tires. In the United States, almost all incineration of MSW occurs at waste-to-energy facilities or industrial facilities where useful energy is recovered, and thus emissions from waste incineration are accounted for in the Energy chapter. Similarly, tires are combusted for energy recovery in industrial and utility boilers. Incineration of waste results in conversion of the organic inputs to CO₂. According to IPCC guidelines, when the CO₂ emitted is of fossil origin, it is counted as a net anthropogenic emission of CO₂ to the atmosphere. Thus, the emissions from waste incineration are calculated by estimating the quantity of waste combusted and the fraction of the waste that is C derived from fossil sources.

Most of the organic materials in municipal solid wastes are of biogenic origin (e.g., paper, yard trimmings), and have their net C flows accounted for under the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter. However, some components—plastics, synthetic rubber, synthetic fibers, and carbon black—are of fossil origin. Plastics in the U.S. waste stream are primarily in the form of containers, packaging, and durable goods. Rubber is found in durable goods, such as carpets, and in non-durable goods, such as clothing and footwear. Fibers in municipal solid wastes are predominantly from clothing and home furnishings. As noted above, tires (which contain rubber and carbon black) are also considered a “non-hazardous” waste and are included in the waste incineration estimate, though waste disposal practices for tires differ from municipal solid waste. Estimates on emissions from hazardous waste incineration can be found in Annex 2.3 and are accounted for as part of the C mass balance for non-energy uses of fossil fuels.

Approximately 26.5 million metric tons of MSW was incinerated in the United States in 2012 (EPA 2014). CO₂ emissions from incineration of waste rose 53 percent since 1990, to an estimated 12.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (12,195 Gg) in 2012, as the volume of tires and other fossil C-containing materials in waste increased (see Table 3-24 and Table 3-25). Waste incineration is also a source of N₂O and CH₄ emissions (De Soete 1993, IPCC 2006). N₂O emissions from the incineration of waste were estimated to be 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1 Gg N₂O) in 2012, and have not changed significantly since 1990. CH₄ emissions from the incineration of waste were estimated to be less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.5 Gg CH₄) in 2012, and have not changed significantly since 1990.

Table 3-24: CO₂ and N₂O Emissions from the Incineration of Waste (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Waste Product	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	8.0	12.5	11.9	11.7	12.0	12.1	12.2
Plastics	5.6	6.9	6.1	6.2	6.6	6.7	6.6

Synthetic Rubber in Tires	0.3	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6
Carbon Black in Tires	0.4	2.0	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9
Synthetic Rubber in MSW	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Synthetic Fibers	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3
CH₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	8.4	12.9	12.2	12.0	12.4	12.5	12.6

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg

Table 3-25: CO₂ and N₂O Emissions from the Incineration of Waste (Gg)

Gas/Waste Product	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	7,972	12,454	11,867	11,672	12,033	12,142	12,195
Plastics	5,588	6,919	6,148	6,233	6,573	6,678	6,623
Synthetic Rubber in Tires	308	1,599	1,693	1,560	1,560	1,560	1,560
Carbon Black in Tires	385	1,958	2,085	1,903	1,903	1,903	1,903
Synthetic Rubber in MSW	854	765	755	767	772	777	777
Synthetic Fibers	838	1,212	1,186	1,211	1,225	1,225	1,333
N₂O	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
CH₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ from the incineration of waste include CO₂ generated by the incineration of plastics, synthetic fibers, and synthetic rubber, as well as the incineration of synthetic rubber and carbon black in tires. These emissions were estimated by multiplying the amount of each material incinerated by the C content of the material and the fraction oxidized (98 percent). Plastics incinerated in municipal solid wastes were categorized into seven plastic resin types, each material having a discrete C content. Similarly, synthetic rubber is categorized into three product types, and synthetic fibers were categorized into four product types, each having a discrete C content. Scrap tires contain several types of synthetic rubber, as well as carbon black. Each type of synthetic rubber has a discrete C content, and carbon black is 100 percent C. Emissions of CO₂ were calculated based on the amount of scrap tires used for fuel and the synthetic rubber and carbon black content of tires.

More detail on the methodology for calculating emissions from each of these waste incineration sources is provided in Annex 3.7.

For each of the methods used to calculate CO₂ emissions from the incineration of waste, data on the quantity of product combusted and the C content of the product are needed. For plastics, synthetic rubber, and synthetic fibers, the amount of specific materials discarded as municipal solid waste (i.e., the quantity generated minus the quantity recycled) was taken from *Municipal Solid Waste Generation, Recycling, and Disposal in the United States: Facts and Figures* (EPA 2000 through 2003, 2005 through 2014) and detailed unpublished backup data for some years not shown in the reports (Schneider 2007). The proportion of total waste discarded that is incinerated was derived from data in BioCycle's "State of Garbage in America" (van Haaren et al. 2010). The most recent data provides the proportion of waste incinerated for 2008, so the corresponding proportion in 2009 through 2012 is assumed to be equal to the proportion in 2008. For synthetic rubber and carbon black in scrap tires, information was obtained from U.S. Scrap Tire Management Summary for 2005 through 2009 data (RMA 2011). For 2010 through 2012, synthetic rubber mass in tires is assumed to be equal to that in 2009 due to a lack of more recently available data.

Average C contents for the "Other" plastics category and synthetic rubber in municipal solid wastes were calculated from 1998 and 2002 production statistics: C content for 1990 through 1998 is based on the 1998 value; C content for 1999 through 2001 is the average of 1998 and 2002 values; and C content for 2002 to date is based on the 2002 value. Carbon content for synthetic fibers was calculated from 1999 production statistics. Information about scrap tire composition was taken from the Rubber Manufacturers' Association internet site (RMA 2012a).

The assumption that 98 percent of organic C is oxidized (which applies to all waste incineration categories for CO₂ emissions) was reported in EPA’s life cycle analysis of greenhouse gas emissions and sinks from management of solid waste (EPA 2006).

Incineration of waste, including MSW, also results in emissions of N₂O and CH₄. These emissions were calculated as a function of the total estimated mass of waste incinerated and an emission factor. As noted above, N₂O and CH₄ emissions are a function of total waste incinerated in each year; for 1990 through 2008, these data were derived from the information published in BioCycle (van Haaren et al. 2010). Data on total waste incinerated was not available for 2009 through 2012, so this value was assumed to equal the most recent value available (2008).

Table 3-26 provides data on municipal solid waste discarded and percentage combusted for the total waste stream. According to Covanta Energy (Bahor 2009) and confirmed by additional research based on ISWA (ERC 2009), all municipal solid waste combustors in the United States are continuously fed stoker units. The emission factors of N₂O and CH₄ emissions per quantity of municipal solid waste combusted are default emission factors for this technology type and were taken from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006).

Table 3-26: Municipal Solid Waste Generation (Metric Tons) and Percent Combusted

Year	Waste Discarded	Waste Incinerated	Incinerated (% of Discards)
1990	235,733,657	30,632,057	13.0
2005	259,559,787	25,973,520	10.0
2008	268,541,088	23,674,017	8.8
2009	268,541,088 ^a	23,674,017 ^a	8.8 ^a
2010	268,541,088 ^a	23,674,017 ^a	8.8 ^a
2011	268,541,088 ^a	23,674,017 ^a	8.8 ^a
2012	268,541,088 ^a	23,674,017 ^a	8.8 ^a

^a Assumed equal to 2008 value.

Source: van Haaren et al. (2010).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A Tier 2 Monte Carlo analysis was performed to determine the level of uncertainty surrounding the estimates of CO₂ emissions and N₂O emissions from the incineration of waste (given the very low emissions for CH₄, no uncertainty estimate was derived). IPCC Tier 2 analysis allows the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the inventory estimate. Uncertainty estimates and distributions for waste generation variables (i.e., plastics, synthetic rubber, and textiles generation) were obtained through a conversation with one of the authors of the Municipal Solid Waste in the United States reports. Statistical analyses or expert judgments of uncertainty were not available directly from the information sources for the other variables; thus, uncertainty estimates for these variables were determined using assumptions based on source category knowledge and the known uncertainty estimates for the waste generation variables.

The uncertainties in the waste incineration emission estimates arise from both the assumptions applied to the data and from the quality of the data. Key factors include MSW incineration rate; fraction oxidized; missing data on waste composition; average C content of waste components; assumptions on the synthetic/biogenic C ratio; and combustion conditions affecting N₂O emissions. The highest levels of uncertainty surround the variables that are based on assumptions (e.g., percent of clothing and footwear composed of synthetic rubber); the lowest levels of uncertainty surround variables that were determined by quantitative measurements (e.g., combustion efficiency, C content of C black).

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-27. Waste incineration CO₂ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 10.9 and 13.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 10 percent below to 14 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 12.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. Also at a 95 percent confidence level, waste incineration N₂O emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 0.2 and 1.5 Tg

CO₂ Eq. This indicates a range of 50 percent below to 313 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-27: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ and N₂O from the Incineration of Waste (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Incineration of Waste	CO ₂	12.2	10.9	13.8	-10%	+14%
Incineration of Waste	N ₂ O	0.4	0.2	1.5	-50%	+313%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan was implemented for incineration of waste. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and specifically focused on the emission factor and activity data sources and methodology used for estimating emissions from incineration of waste. Trends across the time series were analyzed to determine whether any corrective actions were needed. Actions were taken to streamline the activity data throughout the calculations on incineration of waste.

Recalculations Discussion

The emissions from plastics, synthetic rubber in MSW, and synthetic fibers were updated for 2011 based on data obtained from EPA's MSW Facts and Figures report, which was updated in February 2014. This update resulted in a 1 percent increase in emissions for 2011, relative to the previous report.

Planned Improvements

The availability of facility-level waste incineration through EPA's GHGRP will be examined to help better characterize waste incineration operations in the United States. This characterization could include future improvements as to the operations involved in waste incineration for energy, whether in the power generation sector or the industrial sector. Additional examinations will be necessary as, unlike the reporting requirements for this chapter under the UNFCCC reporting guidelines,¹⁰⁴ some facility-level waste incineration emissions reported under the GHGRP may also include industrial process emissions. In line with UNFCCC reporting guidelines, emissions for waste incineration with energy recovery are included in this chapter, while process emissions are included in the industrial processes chapter of this report. In examining data from EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the waste incineration category, particular attention will also be made to ensure time series consistency, as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP are not available for all inventory years as reported in this inventory. Additionally, analyses will focus on ensuring CO₂ emissions from the biomass component of waste are separated in the facility-level reported data, and on maintaining consistency with national waste generation and fate statistics currently used to estimate total, national U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the

¹⁰⁴ See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>>.

use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹⁰⁵ GHGRP data is available for MSW combustors, which contains information on the CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from MSW combustion, plus the fraction of the emissions that are biogenic. To calculate biogenic versus total CO₂ emissions, a default biogenic fraction of 0.6 is used. The biogenic fraction will be calculated using the current input data and assumptions to verify the current MSW emission estimates.

Additional improvements will be to improve the transparency in the current reporting of waste incineration. Currently, hazardous industrial waste incineration is included within the overall calculations for the carbon emitted from the non-energy uses of fossil fuels category. Additional examinations will be made in to any waste incineration activities covered that do not include energy recovery.

3.4 Coal Mining (IPCC Source Category 1B1a)

Three types of coal mining-related activities release CH₄ to the atmosphere: underground mining, surface mining, and post-mining (i.e., coal-handling) activities. While surface mines account for the majority of U.S. coal production (see Table 3-28 and Table 3-29), underground coal mines contribute the largest share of CH₄ emissions due to the higher CH₄ content of coal in the deeper underground coal seams. In 2012, 488 underground coal mines and 719 surface mines were operating in the U.S. Also in 2012, the U.S. was the second largest coal producer in the world (921 million metric tons), after China (3,549 MMT) and followed by India (595 MMT) (IEA 2013).

Underground mines liberate CH₄ from ventilation systems and from degasification systems. Ventilation systems pump air through the mine workings to dilute noxious gases and ensure worker safety; these systems can exhaust significant amounts of CH₄ to the atmosphere in low concentrations. Degasification systems are wells drilled from the surface or boreholes drilled inside the mine that remove large, often highly-concentrated, volumes of CH₄ before, during, or after mining. Some mines recover and use CH₄ generated from ventilation and degasification systems, thereby reducing emissions to the atmosphere.

Surface coal mines liberate CH₄ as the overburden is removed and the coal is exposed to the atmosphere. Methane emissions are normally a function of coal rank and depth. Surface coal mines typically produce lower rank coals and remove less than 250 feet of overburden, thus the level of emissions is much lower than from underground mines.

In addition, CH₄ is released during post-mining activities, as the coal is processed, transported and stored for use.

Total CH₄ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be 55.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2,658 Gg CH₄), a decline of 31 percent since 1990 (see Table 3-28 and Table 3-29). Of this amount, underground mines accounted for approximately 71 percent, surface mines accounted for 15 percent, and post-mining emissions accounted for 13 percent.

Table 3-28: CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
UG Mining	62.3	35.0	44.4	49.7	51.7	42.2	39.7
Liberated	67.9	50.2	60.5	66.1	71.5	59.1	55.3
Recovered & Used	(5.6)	(15.2)	(16.1)	(16.4)	(19.8)	(17.0)	(15.5)
Surface Mining	9.0	10.0	10.7	9.7	9.7	9.8	8.6
Post-Mining (UG)	7.7	6.4	6.1	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.6
Post-Mining (Surface)	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.1	1.9
Total	81.1	53.6	63.5	67.1	69.2	59.8	55.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values.

Table 3-29: CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
UG Mining	2,968	1,668	2,113	2,367	2,463	2,008	1,891
Liberated	3,234	2,390	2,881	3,149	3,406	2,839	2,631

¹⁰⁵ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

Recovered & Used	(266)	(722)	(768)	(782)	(943)	(831)	(740)
Surface Mining	430	475	510	461	461	465	410
Post-Mining (UG)	368	306	292	267	270	276	268
Post-Mining (Surface)	93	103	111	100	100	101	89
Total	3,860	2,552	3,026	3,194	3,293	2,849	2,658

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values.

Methodology

The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from coal mining consists of two steps. The first step is to estimate emissions from underground mines. There are two sources of underground mine emissions: ventilation systems and degasification systems. These emissions are estimated on a mine-by-mine basis and then are summed to determine total emissions. The second step of the analysis involves estimating CH₄ emissions from surface mines and post-mining activities. In contrast to the methodology for underground mines, which uses mine-specific data, the methodology for estimating emissions from surface mines and post-mining activities consists of multiplying basin-specific coal production by basin-specific gas content and an emission factor.

Step 1: Estimate CH₄ Liberated and CH₄ Emitted from Underground Mines

Underground mines generate CH₄ from ventilation systems and from degasification systems. Some mines recover and use the generated CH₄, thereby reducing emissions to the atmosphere. Total CH₄ emitted from underground mines equals the CH₄ liberated from ventilation systems, plus the CH₄ liberated from degasification systems, minus the CH₄ recovered and used.

Step 1.1: Estimate CH₄ Liberated from Ventilation Systems

Because the U.S. Mine Safety and Health Administration (MSHA) samples CH₄ emissions from ventilation systems for all mines with detectable CH₄ concentrations¹⁰⁶ to ensure miner safety, these mine-by-mine measurements are used to estimate CH₄ emissions from ventilation systems. While since 2011 the EPA has also collected information on ventilation emissions from underground coal mines liberating greater than 36,500,000 actual cubic feet of CH₄ per year (about 14,700 metric tons CO₂ Eq.) through its Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP), as of the publication of this inventory the reported GHGRP data on ventilation emissions had not been fully reconciled with the MSHA data used to estimate emissions in previous years. As a result, MSHA data was used to estimate ventilation emissions for 2012.

Step 1.2: Estimate CH₄ Liberated from Degasification Systems

Some gassier underground mines also use degasification systems (e.g., wells or boreholes) to remove CH₄ before, during, or after mining. This CH₄ can then be collected for use or vented to the atmosphere. Several data sets were used to estimate the quantity of CH₄ collected by each of the twenty-four mines using degasification systems in 2012. First, for mines that sold recovered CH₄ to a pipeline, pipeline sales data published by state petroleum and natural gas agencies were used to estimate degasification emissions. For those mines that vented CH₄ from degasification systems rather than selling it to a pipeline, data on degasification emissions reported to the EPA's GHGRP (EPA 2013) were used.

Step 1.3: Estimate CH₄ Recovered from Degasification Systems and Utilized (Emissions Avoided)

Finally, the amount of CH₄ recovered by degasification and ventilation systems and then used (i.e., not vented) was estimated. In 2012, sixteen active coal mines had CH₄ recovery and use projects, of which fourteen mines sold the recovered CH₄ to a pipeline. One of the mines that sold gas to a pipeline also used CH₄ to fuel a thermal coal dryer. One mine used recovered CH₄ for electrical power generation, and another mine used recovered CH₄ to heat mine ventilation air. Emissions avoided as a result of pipeline sales projects were estimated using gas sales data reported

¹⁰⁶ MSHA records coal mine CH₄ readings with concentrations of greater than 50 ppm (parts per million) CH₄. Readings below this threshold are considered non-detectable.

by various state agencies. For those mines that used methane for electric power or heating, coal mine operators or project developers supplied information regarding methane recovery.

Step 2: Estimate CH₄ Emitted from Surface Mines and Post-Mining Activities

Mine-specific data were not available for estimating CH₄ emissions from surface coal mines or for post-mining activities. For surface mines, basin-specific coal production obtained from the Energy Information Administration's Annual Coal Report (see Table 3-30) (EIA 2013) was multiplied by basin-specific gas contents and a 150 percent emission factor (to account for CH₄ from over- and under-burden) to estimate CH₄ emissions. The emission factor was revised downward in 2012 from 200 percent, based on more recent studies in Canada and Australia (King 1994, Saghafi 2013). The 150 percent emission factor was applied to all inventory years since 1990, retroactively. For post-mining activities, basin-specific coal production was multiplied by basin-specific gas contents and a 32.5 percent emission factor for CH₄ desorption during coal transportation and storage (Creedy 1993). Basin-specific *in situ* gas content data was compiled from AAPG (1984) and USBM (1986). Revised data on *in situ* CH₄ content and emissions factors are taken from EPA (1996) and EPA (2005).

Table 3-30: Coal Production (Thousand Metric Tons)

Year	Underground	Surface	Total
1990	384,244	546,808	931,052
2005	334,398	691,448	1,025,846
2008	323,932	737,832	1,061,764
2009	301,241	671,475	972,716
2010	305,862	676,177	982,039
2011	313,529	684,807	998,337
2012	310,608	610,307	920,915

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis was conducted for the coal mining source category using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology. Because emission estimates from underground ventilation systems were based on actual measurement data, uncertainty is relatively low. A degree of imprecision was introduced because the measurements used were not continuous but rather an average of quarterly instantaneous readings. Additionally, the measurement equipment used can be expected to have resulted in an average of 10 percent overestimation of annual CH₄ emissions (Mutmanský & Wang 2000).

Estimates of CH₄ recovered by degasification systems are relatively certain for utilized CH₄ because of the availability of gas sales information. In addition, many coal mine operators provided information on mined-through dates for pre-drainage wells. Many of the recovery estimates use data on wells within 100 feet of a mined area. However, uncertainty exists concerning the radius of influence of each well. The number of wells counted, and thus the avoided emissions, may vary if the drainage area is found to be larger or smaller than estimated. The 2012 GHGRP data (EPA 2013) used for determining CH₄ emissions from vented degasification wells are based on weekly measurements, an improvement over the previous year's estimates, thus lowering the uncertainty of that subsurface.

Compared to underground mines, there is considerably more uncertainty associated with surface mining and post-mining emissions because of the difficulty in developing accurate emission factors from field measurements. However, since underground emissions comprise the majority of total coal mining emissions, the uncertainty associated with underground emissions is the primary factor that determines overall uncertainty. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-31. Coal mining CH₄ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 49.1 and 64.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 12.1 percent below to 15.6 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 55.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-31: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Coal Mining (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Coal Mining	CH ₄	55.8	49.1	64.5	-12.1%	+15.6%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section.

Recalculations Discussion

For the current inventory, updated mine maps were received for the Jim Walter Resources Blue Creek #4 and #7 mines (JWR 2010) that showed changes in the planned locations of areas to be mined through. The updated mine plans provided a more accurate depiction of the dates and locations at which the pre-drainage wells were mined through. As a result, the mined-through dates were adjusted for some wells relative to the previous inventory, and underground emissions avoided values changed slightly for 2011.

Prior to the current inventory, vented degasification emissions from underground coal mines were typically estimated based on drainage efficiencies reported by either the mining company or MSHA. However, beginning in 2011, underground coal mines began reporting CH₄ emissions from degasification systems to EPA under its GHGRP, which requires degasification quantities to be measured weekly, thus offering a more accurate account than previous methods. As a result, data reported to EPA's GHGRP in 2012 were used to estimate vented degasification volumes for those mines. In 2012, GHGRP-reported vented degasification emissions totals were approximately 30 percent lower when compared to the previous estimation method; however, the difference only represents approximately 1.5 percent of the overall coal mining emission inventory.

In 2012, the surface mining emission factor was revised downward from 200 percent to 150 percent of the average *in situ* CH₄ content of the mined coal seam. In previous years, EPA used a 200 percent factor as a conservative measure due to a lack of U.S. data. Based on surface mine emissions studies conducted used in Canada and Australia (King 1994, Saghatfi 2013), this emission factor was adjusted to be more closely aligned with those studies where actual measurements have been taken of similar coals. While the gas content of the coal accounts for CH₄ liberated from the mined coal, this emission factor accounts for additional CH₄ released from the over- and under-lying strata surrounding the mined coal seam. The change was made for all inventory years 1990 through 2012.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the Coal Mining category will include continued analysis and possible integration into the national inventory of the ventilation systems data reported by underground coal mines to EPA's GHGRP. Many of the underground coal mines reporting to the GHGRP use the same quarterly MSHA samples currently used to develop the estimates for the inventory. However, some mines use their own measurements and samples, which are taken monthly (rather than quarterly). It is possible that more frequent measurements could lower the uncertainty of the annual ventilation systems estimate. EPA anticipates that reconciliation of its GHGRP and inventory data sets will be complete in preparation for the 2013 inventory. In implementing improvements and integrating data from the GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon (IPCC 2013).

3.5 Abandoned Underground Coal Mines (IPCC Source Category 1B1a)

Underground coal mines contribute the largest share of CH₄ emissions, with active underground mines the leading source of underground emissions. However, mines also continue to release CH₄ after closure. As mines mature and coal seams are mined through, mines are closed and abandoned. Many are sealed and some flood through intrusion of groundwater or surface water into the void. Shafts or portals are generally filled with gravel and capped with a concrete seal, while vent pipes and boreholes are plugged in a manner similar to oil and gas wells. Some abandoned mines are vented to the atmosphere to prevent the buildup of CH₄ that may find its way to surface structures through overburden fractures. As work stops within the mines, CH₄ liberation decreases but it does not stop completely. Following an initial decline, abandoned mines can liberate CH₄ at a near-steady rate over an extended period of time, or, if flooded, produce gas for only a few years. The gas can migrate to the surface through the conduits described above, particularly if they have not been sealed adequately. In addition, diffuse emissions can occur when CH₄ migrates to the surface through cracks and fissures in the strata overlying the coal mine. The following factors influence abandoned mine emissions:

- Time since abandonment;
- Gas content and adsorption characteristics of coal;
- CH₄ flow capacity of the mine;
- Mine flooding;
- Presence of vent holes; and
- Mine seals.

Gross abandoned mine CH₄ emissions ranged from 6.0 to 9.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. from 1990 through 2012, varying, in general, by less than 1 percent to approximately 19 percent from year to year. Fluctuations were due mainly to the number of mines closed during a given year as well as the magnitude of the emissions from those mines when active. Gross abandoned mine emissions peaked in 1996 (9.1 Tg CO₂ Eq.) due to the large number of mine closures from 1994 to 1996 (70 gassy mines closed during the three-year period). In spite of this rapid rise, abandoned mine emissions have been generally on the decline since 1996. Since 2005, there have been fewer than twelve gassy mine closures each year. There were seven gassy mine closures in 2012. By 2012, gross abandoned mine emissions decreased slightly to 7.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (see Table 3-32 and Table 3-33). Gross emissions are reduced by CH₄ recovered and used at 38 mines, resulting in net emissions in 2012 of 4.7 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-32: CH₄ Emissions from Abandoned Coal Mines (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Abandoned Underground Mines	6.0	7.0	9.0	8.1	7.6	7.3	7.0
Recovered & Used	+	1.5	3.7	3.0	2.7	2.4	2.3
Total	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-33: CH₄ Emissions from Abandoned Coal Mines (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Abandoned Underground Mines	288	334	429	388	364	347	335
Recovered & Used	+	70	177	143	126	116	109
Total	288	264	253	244	237	231	226

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Estimating CH₄ emissions from an abandoned coal mine requires predicting the emissions of a mine from the time of abandonment through the inventory year of interest. The flow of CH₄ from the coal to the mine void is primarily dependent on the mine's emissions when active and the extent to which the mine is flooded or sealed. The CH₄ emission rate before abandonment reflects the gas content of the coal, rate of coal mining, and the flow capacity of the mine in much the same way as the initial rate of a water-free conventional gas well reflects the gas content of the producing formation and the flow capacity of the well. A well or a mine which produces gas from a coal seam and the surrounding strata will produce less gas through time as the reservoir of gas is depleted. Depletion of a reservoir will follow a predictable pattern depending on the interplay of a variety of natural physical conditions imposed on the reservoir. The depletion of a reservoir is commonly modeled by mathematical equations and mapped as a type curve. Type curves which are referred to as decline curves have been developed for abandoned coal mines. Existing data on abandoned mine emissions through time, although sparse, appear to fit the hyperbolic type of decline curve used in forecasting production from natural gas wells.

In order to estimate CH₄ emissions over time for a given abandoned mine, it is necessary to apply a decline function, initiated upon abandonment, to that mine. In the analysis, mines were grouped by coal basin with the assumption that they will generally have the same initial pressures, permeability and isotherm. As CH₄ leaves the system, the reservoir pressure, Pr, declines as described by the isotherm. The emission rate declines because the mine pressure (Pw) is essentially constant at atmospheric pressure for a vented mine, and the productivity index or PI term, which is expressed as the flow rate per unit of pressure change, is essentially constant at the pressures of interest (atmospheric to 30 psia). A rate-time equation can be generated that can be used to predict future emissions. This decline through time is hyperbolic in nature and can be empirically expressed as:

$$q = q_i (1 + bD_i t)^{-1/b}$$

where,

- q = Gas flow rate at time t in million cubic feet per day (mmcf)
- q_i = Initial gas flow rate at time zero (t₀), mmcf
- b = The hyperbolic exponent, dimensionless
- D_i = Initial decline rate, 1/yr
- t = Elapsed time from t₀ (years)

This equation is applied to mines of various initial emission rates that have similar initial pressures, permeability and adsorption isotherms (EPA 2003).

The decline curves created to model the gas emission rate of coal mines must account for factors that decrease the rate of emission after mining activities cease, such as sealing and flooding. Based on field measurement data, it was assumed that most U.S. mines prone to flooding will become completely flooded within eight years and therefore no longer have any measurable CH₄ emissions. Based on this assumption, an average decline rate for flooded mines was established by fitting a decline curve to emissions from field measurements. An exponential equation was developed from emissions data measured at eight abandoned mines known to be filling with water located in two of the five basins. Using a least squares, curve-fitting algorithm, emissions data were matched to the exponential equation shown below. There was not enough data to establish basin-specific equations as was done with the vented, non-flooding mines (EPA 2003).

$$q = q_i e^{-Dt}$$

where,

- q = Gas flow rate at time t in mmcf
- q_i = Initial gas flow rate at time zero (t₀), mmcf
- D = Decline rate, 1/yr
- t = Elapsed time from t₀ (years)

Seals have an inhibiting effect on the rate of flow of CH₄ into the atmosphere compared to the flow rate that would exist if the mine had an open vent. The total volume emitted will be the same, but emissions will occur over a longer period of time. The methodology, therefore, treats the emissions prediction from a sealed mine similarly to the emissions prediction from a vented mine, but uses a lower initial rate depending on the degree of sealing. A

computational fluid dynamics simulator was used with the conceptual abandoned mine model to predict the decline curve for inhibited flow. The percent sealed is defined as $100 \times (1 - (\text{initial emissions from sealed mine} / \text{emission rate at abandonment prior to sealing}))$. Significant differences are seen between 50 percent, 80 percent and 95 percent closure. These decline curves were therefore used as the high, middle, and low values for emissions from sealed mines (EPA 2003).

For active coal mines, those mines producing over 100 thousand cubic feet per day (mcf/d) account for 98 percent of all CH₄ emissions. This same relationship is assumed for abandoned mines. It was determined that 469 abandoned mines closing after 1972 produced emissions greater than 100 mcf/d when active. Further, the status of 274 of the 483 mines (or 57 percent) is known to be either: 1) vented to the atmosphere; 2) sealed to some degree (either earthen or concrete seals); or, 3) flooded (enough to inhibit CH₄ flow to the atmosphere). The remaining 43 percent of the mines whose status is unknown were placed in one of these three categories by applying a probability distribution analysis based on the known status of other mines located in the same coal basin (EPA 2003).

Table 3-34: Number of gassy abandoned mines present in U.S. basins, grouped by class according to post-abandonment state

Basin	Sealed	Vented	Flooded	Total Known	Unknown	Total Mines
Central Appl.	26	25	48	99	136	235
Illinois	30	3	14	47	27	74
Northern Appl.	42	22	16	80	36	116
Warrior Basin	0	0	16	16	0	16
Western Basins	27	3	2	32	10	42
Total	125	53	96	274	209	483

Inputs to the decline equation require the average emission rate and the date of abandonment. Generally this data is available for mines abandoned after 1971; however, such data are largely unknown for mines closed before 1972. Information that is readily available, such as coal production by state and county, are helpful but do not provide enough data to directly employ the methodology used to calculate emissions from mines abandoned after 1971. It is assumed that pre-1972 mines are governed by the same physical, geologic, and hydrologic constraints that apply to post-1971 mines; thus, their emissions may be characterized by the same decline curves.

During the 1970s, 78 percent of CH₄ emissions from coal mining came from seventeen counties in seven states. In addition, mine closure dates were obtained for two states, Colorado and Illinois, for the hundred year period extending from 1900 through 1999. The data were used to establish a frequency of mine closure histogram (by decade) and applied to the other five states with gassy mine closures. As a result, basin-specific decline curve equations were applied to the 145 gassy coal mines estimated to have closed between 1920 and 1971 in the United States, representing 78 percent of the emissions. State-specific, initial emission rates were used based on average coal mine CH₄ emissions rates during the 1970s (EPA 2003).

Abandoned mine emission estimates are based on all closed mines known to have active mine CH₄ ventilation emission rates greater than 100 mcf/d at the time of abandonment. For example, for 1990 the analysis included 145 mines closed before 1972 and 258 mines closed between 1972 and 1990. Initial emission rates based on MSHA reports, time of abandonment, and basin-specific decline curves influenced by a number of factors were used to calculate annual emissions for each mine in the database. Coal mine degasification data are not available for years prior to 1990, thus the initial emission rates used reflect ventilation emissions only for pre-1990 closures. CH₄ degasification amounts were added to the quantity of CH₄ vented to determine the total CH₄ liberation rate for all mines that closed between 1992 and 2012. Since the sample of gassy mines (with active mine emissions greater than 100 mcf/d) is assumed to account for 78 percent of the pre-1972 and 98 percent of the post-1971 abandoned mine emissions, the modeled results were multiplied by 1.22 and 1.02 to account for all U.S. abandoned mine emissions.

From 1993 through 2012, emission totals were downwardly adjusted to reflect abandoned mine CH₄ emissions avoided from those mines. The inventory totals were not adjusted for abandoned mine reductions from 1990 through 1992 because no data was reported for abandoned coal mining CH₄ recovery projects during that time.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis was conducted to estimate the uncertainty surrounding the estimates of emissions from abandoned underground coal mines. The uncertainty analysis described below provides for the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the inventory estimate. The results provide the range within which, with 95 percent certainty, emissions from this source category are likely to fall.

As discussed above, the parameters for which values must be estimated for each mine in order to predict its decline curve are: 1) the coal's adsorption isotherm; 2) CH₄ flow capacity as expressed by permeability; and 3) pressure at abandonment. Because these parameters are not available for each mine, a methodological approach to estimating emissions was used that generates a probability distribution of potential outcomes based on the most likely value and the probable range of values for each parameter. The range of values is not meant to capture the extreme values, but rather values that represent the highest and lowest quartile of the cumulative probability density function of each parameter. Once the low, mid, and high values are selected, they are applied to a probability density function.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-35. Abandoned coal mine CH₄ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 3.83 and 5.97 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 19 percent below to 26 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 4.74 Tg CO₂ Eq. One of the reasons for the relatively narrow range is that mine-specific data is used in the methodology. The largest degree of uncertainty is associated with the unknown status mines (which account for 43 percent of the mines), with a -46/+62 percent uncertainty.

Table 3-35: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Abandoned Underground Coal Mines (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	CH ₄	4.7	3.8	6.0	-19%	+26%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

3.6 Petroleum Systems (IPCC Source Category 1B2a)

Methane emissions from petroleum systems are primarily associated with crude oil production, transportation, and refining operations. During each of these activities, CH₄ emissions are released to the atmosphere as fugitive emissions, vented emissions, emissions from operational upsets, and emissions from fuel combustion. Fugitive and vented CO₂ emissions from petroleum systems are primarily associated with crude oil production and refining operations but are negligible in transportation operations. Combustion CO₂ emissions from fuels are already accounted for in the Fossil Fuels Combustion source category, and hence have not been taken into account in the Petroleum Systems source category. Total CH₄ and CO₂ emissions from petroleum systems in 2012 were 31.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,511 Gg CH₄) and 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (406 Gg), respectively. Since 1990, CH₄ emissions have declined by 11.3 percent. The largest decreases are due to decreases in the numbers of offshore shallow water platforms (decrease of 18.2 percent since 1990), and decreases in the numbers of pneumatic devices and gas engines which both relate to total oil production, which has decreased by 11.7 percent since 1990. However, in recent years, domestic oil production has begun to increase again, resulting in greater CH₄ emissions from petroleum systems.

Since 2008, when production began to increase, CH₄ emissions from petroleum systems have increased by 10.2 percent (see Table 3-36 and Table 3-37) primarily due to increases in vented emissions from oil tanks in the production segment. CO₂ emissions have increased by 3.3 percent since 1990, and have similarly experienced an increase in recent years due to increased domestic production, with the largest increases occurring in tank venting CO₂ emissions. Since 2008, CO₂ emissions have increased by 35.4 percent (see Table 3-38 and Table 3-39).

Production Field Operations. Production field operations account for 98.4 percent of total CH₄ emissions from petroleum systems. Vented CH₄ from field operations account for approximately 89.9 percent of the emissions from the production sector, uncombusted CH₄ emissions (i.e. unburned fuel) account for 6.5 percent, fugitive emissions are 3.4 percent, and process upset emissions are slightly under two-tenths of a percent. The most dominant sources of emissions, in order of magnitude, are shallow water offshore oil platforms, natural-gas-powered high bleed pneumatic devices, oil tanks, natural-gas powered low bleed pneumatic devices, gas engines, deep water offshore oil platforms, and chemical injection pumps. These seven sources alone emit about over 90 percent of the production field operations emissions. Offshore platform emissions are a combination of fugitive, vented, and uncombusted fuel emissions from all equipment housed on oil platforms producing oil and associated gas. Emissions from high and low-bleed pneumatics occur when pressurized gas that is used for control devices is bled to the atmosphere as they cycle open and closed to modulate the system. Emissions from oil tanks occur when the CH₄ entrained in crude oil under pressure volatilizes once the crude oil is put into storage tanks at atmospheric pressure. Emissions from gas engines are due to unburned CH₄ that vents with the exhaust. Emissions from chemical injection pumps are due to the estimated 25 percent of such pumps that use associated gas to drive pneumatic pumps. The remaining 6 percent of the emissions are distributed among 26 additional activities within the four categories: vented, fugitive, combustion, and process upset emissions. For more detailed, source-level data on CH₄ emissions in production field operations, refer to Annex 3.5.

Since 1990, CH₄ emissions from production of crude oil have decreased by 11.5 percent. This reduction was a result of a significant decrease in annual domestic production. From 1990 until 2008, CH₄ emissions from domestic production of crude oil decreased by 19.7 percent. However, since 2008, domestic production of oil has begun to increase again, resulting in greater emissions of CH₄. Since 2008, CH₄ emissions from crude oil production have increased by 10.2 percent. This is mainly from production activities such as pneumatic device venting, tank venting, process upsets, and combustion.

Vented CO₂ associated with field operations account for 99.2 percent of the total CO₂ emissions from production field operations, while fugitive and process upsets together account for less than 1 percent of the emissions. The most dominant sources of vented emissions are oil tanks, high bleed pneumatic devices, shallow water offshore oil platforms, low bleed pneumatic devices, and chemical injection pumps. These five sources together account for 98.7 percent of the non-combustion CO₂ emissions from production field operations, while the remaining 1.3 percent of the emissions is distributed among 24 additional activities within the three categories: vented, fugitive, and process upsets. Note that CO₂ from associated gas flaring is accounted in natural gas systems production emissions. CO₂ emissions from flaring for both natural gas and oil were 13 MMT CO₂ Eq. in 2012.

Crude Oil Transportation. Crude oil transportation activities account for less than 0.4 percent of total CH₄ emissions from the oil industry. Venting from tanks, truck loading, and marine vessel loading operations account for 73.8 percent of CH₄ emissions from crude oil transportation. Fugitive emissions, almost entirely from floating roof tanks, account for 16.3 percent of CH₄ emissions from crude oil transportation. The remaining 9.9 percent is distributed among three additional sources within the vented emissions category. Emissions from pump engine drivers and heaters were not estimated due to lack of data.

Since 1990, CH₄ emissions from transportation have decreased by almost 10.0 percent. However, because emissions from crude oil transportation account for such a small percentage of the total emissions from the petroleum industry, this has had little impact on the overall emissions.

Crude Oil Refining. Crude oil refining processes and systems account for less than 1.3 percent of total CH₄ emissions from the oil industry because most of the CH₄ in crude oil is removed or escapes before the crude oil is delivered to the refineries. There is an insignificant amount of CH₄ in all refined products. Within refineries, vented emissions account for about 81.4 percent of the emissions, while fugitive and combustion emissions account for approximately 8.9 and 9.8 percent, respectively. Refinery system blowdowns for maintenance and the process of asphalt blowing—with air, to harden the asphalt—are the primary venting contributors. Most of the fugitive CH₄ emissions from refineries are from leaks in the fuel gas system. Refinery combustion emissions include small amounts of unburned CH₄ in process heater stack emissions and unburned CH₄ in engine exhausts and flares.

CH₄ emissions from refining of crude oil have increased 7.0 percent since 1990; however, similar to the transportation subcategory, this increase has had little effect on the overall emissions of CH₄. Since 1990, CH₄ emissions have fluctuated between 17 and 20 Gg.

Asphalt blowing from crude oil refining accounts for 3.3 percent of the total non-combustion CO₂ emissions in petroleum systems. Since 2000, the year in which CO₂ emissions from refining peaked, CO₂ emissions from crude oil refining have dropped by approximately 33.6 percent.

Table 3-36: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Production Field Operations							
(Potential)	35.3	29.1	29.9	30.1	30.3	31.0	32.2
Pneumatic device venting	10.3	8.3	8.7	8.8	8.7	9.0	9.1
Tank venting	5.3	3.9	3.9	4.2	4.4	4.7	5.6
Combustion & process upsets	2.4	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2
Misc. venting & fugitives	16.8	14.5	14.8	14.6	14.7	14.7	14.8
Wellhead fugitives	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Production Voluntary Reductions	(0.0)	(0.8)	(1.6)	(1.4)	(1.3)	(0.9)	(1.0)
Production Field Operations (Net)	35.3	28.3	28.3	28.7	29.0	30.0	31.2
Crude Oil Transportation	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Refining	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	35.8	28.8	28.8	29.1	29.5	30.5	31.7

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-37: CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Production Field Operations							
(Potential)	1,680	1,385	1,425	1,432	1,443	1,474	1,531
Pneumatic device venting	489	398	416	419	416	428	435
Tank venting	250	188	185	202	211	222	267
Combustion & process upsets	115	90	94	94	95	98	103
Misc. venting & fugitives	799	690	706	694	700	702	703
Wellhead fugitives	26	19	24	23	22	24	24
Production Voluntary Reductions	(0)	(36)	(77)	(67)	(60)	(45)	(45)
Production Field Operations (Net)	1,679	1,349	1,348	1,365	1,383	1,429	1,486
Crude Oil Transportation	7	5	5	5	5	5	6
Refining	18	19	19	18	19	19	19
Total	1,704	1,374	1,372	1,388	1,407	1,453	1,511

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-38: CO₂ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Production Field Operations							
(Potential)	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Pneumatic device venting	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Tank venting	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4
Misc. venting & fugitives	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wellhead fugitives	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Crude Refining	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-39: CO₂ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Production Field Operations	376	285	284	306	317	332	392
Pneumatic device venting	27	22	23	23	23	24	24
Tank venting	328	246	243	265	276	291	350
Misc. venting & fugitives	18	16	16	16	16	16	16
Wellhead fugitives	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Crude Refining	18	20	16	14	15	15	14
Total	394	306	300	320	332	347	406

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from petroleum systems is based on comprehensive studies of CH₄ emissions from U.S. petroleum systems (EPA 1996, EPA 1999). These studies calculated emission estimates for 64 activities occurring in petroleum systems from the oil wellhead through crude oil refining, including 33 activities for crude oil production field operations, 11 for crude oil transportation activities, and 20 for refining operations. Annex 3.5 provides greater detail on the emission estimates for these 64 activities. The estimates of CH₄ emissions from petroleum systems do not include emissions downstream of oil refineries because these emissions are negligible.

Key references for activity data and emission factors are the Energy Information Administration annual and monthly reports (EIA 1990 through 2013), (EIA 1995 through 2013a, 2013b, 2013c), “Methane Emissions from the Natural Gas Industry by the Gas Research Institute and EPA” (EPA/GRI 1996a-d), “Estimates of Methane Emissions from the U.S. Oil Industry” (EPA 1999), consensus of industry peer review panels, BOEMRE and BOEM reports (BOEMRE 2005, BOEM 2011), analysis of BOEMRE data (EPA 2005, BOEMRE 2004), the Oil & Gas Journal (OGJ 2013a, 2013b), the Interstate Oil and Gas Compact Commission (IOGCC 2011), and the United States Army Corps of Engineers, (1995-2010).

The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from the 64 oil industry activities employs emission factors initially developed by EPA (1999). Activity data for the years 1990 through 2012 were collected from a wide variety of statistical resources. Emissions are estimated for each activity by multiplying emission factors (e.g., emission rate per equipment item or per activity) by the corresponding activity data (e.g., equipment count or frequency of activity). EPA (1999) provides emission factors for all activities except those related to offshore oil production and field storage tanks. For offshore oil production, two emission factors were calculated using data collected over a one-year period for all federal offshore platforms (EPA 2005, BOEMRE 2004). One emission factor is for oil platforms in shallow water, and one emission factor is for oil platforms in deep water. Emission factors are held constant for the period 1990 through 2012. The number of platforms in shallow water and the number of platforms in deep water are used as activity data and are taken from Bureau of Ocean Energy Management (BOEM) (formerly Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Regulation, and Enforcement [BOEMRE]) datasets (BOEM 2011). For oil storage tanks, the emissions factor was calculated as the total emissions per barrel of crude charge from E&P Tank data weighted by the distribution of produced crude oil gravities from the HPDI production database (EPA 1999, HPDI 2011).

For some years, complete activity data were not available. In such cases, one of three approaches was employed. Where appropriate, the activity data was calculated from related statistics using ratios developed for EPA (1996). For example, EPA (1996) found that the number of heater treaters (a source of CH₄ emissions) is related to both number of producing wells and annual production. To estimate the activity data for heater treaters, reported statistics for wells and production were used, along with the ratios developed for EPA (1996). In other cases, the activity data was held constant from 1990 through 2012 based on EPA (1999). Lastly, the previous year’s data were used when data for the current year were unavailable. The CH₄ and CO₂ sources in the production sector share common activity data. See Annex 3.5 for additional detail.

This year's inventory estimate for Petroleum Systems takes into account Natural Gas STAR reductions that were previously deducted from the Natural Gas System emissions estimates. See Recalculations Discussion for more information.

The methodology for estimating CO₂ emissions from petroleum systems combines vented, fugitive, and process upset emissions sources from 29 activities for crude oil production field operations and one activity from petroleum refining. Emissions are estimated for each activity by multiplying emission factors by their corresponding activity data. The emission factors for CO₂ are estimated by multiplying the CH₄ emission factors by a conversion factor, which is the ratio of CO₂ content and methane content in produced associated gas. The only exceptions to this methodology are the emission factors for crude oil storage tanks, which are obtained from E&P Tank simulation runs, and the emission factor for asphalt blowing, which was derived using the methodology and sample data from API (2009).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis was conducted for previous Inventories to determine the level of uncertainty surrounding estimates of emissions from petroleum systems using the recommended methodology from IPCC. EPA produced the results presented below in Table 3-40, which provide with 95 percent certainty the range within which emissions from this source category are likely to fall for the year 2012. Performed using @RISK software and the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 methodology (Monte Carlo Simulation technique), this analysis provides for the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the inventory estimate. The IPCC guidance notes that in using this method, "some uncertainties that are not addressed by statistical means may exist, including those arising from omissions or double counting, or other conceptual errors, or from incomplete understanding of the processes that may lead to inaccuracies in estimates developed from models." As a result, the understanding of the uncertainty of emissions estimates for this category will evolve and will improve as the underlying methodologies and datasets improve.

Performed using @RISK software and the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 methodology (Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique), the method employed provides for the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the inventory estimate. The results provide the range within which, with 95 percent certainty, emissions from this source category are likely to fall.

The detailed, bottom-up inventory analysis used to evaluate U.S. petroleum systems reduces the uncertainty related to the CH₄ emission estimates in comparison to a top-down approach. However, some uncertainty still remains. Emission factors and activity factors are based on a combination of measurements, equipment design data, engineering calculations and studies, surveys of selected facilities and statistical reporting. Statistical uncertainties arise from natural variation in measurements, equipment types, operational variability and survey and statistical methodologies. Published activity factors are not available every year for all 64 activities analyzed for petroleum systems; therefore, some are estimated. Because of the dominance of seven major sources, which account for 92 percent of the total methane emissions, the uncertainty surrounding these sources has been estimated most rigorously, and serves as the basis for determining the overall uncertainty of petroleum systems emission estimates.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-40. Petroleum systems CH₄ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 24.1 and 78.9 Tg CO₂ Eq., while CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 0.3 and 1.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 24 percent below to 149 percent above the 2012 emission estimates of 31.7 and 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. for CH₄ and CO₂, respectively.

Table 3-40: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Petroleum Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.) ^b	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound ^b	Upper Bound ^b	Lower Bound ^b	Upper Bound ^b
Petroleum Systems	CH ₄	31.7	24.1	78.9	-24%	149%
Petroleum Systems	CO ₂	0.4	0.3	1.0	-24%	149%

^a Range of 2012 relative uncertainty predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation, based on 1995 base year activity factors, for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^b All reported values are rounded after calculation. As a result, lower and upper bounds may not be duplicable from other rounded values as shown in table.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification Discussion

The petroleum inventory is continually being reviewed and assessed to determine whether emission factors and activity factors accurately reflect current industry practice. A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation. The primary focus of the QA/QC checks is determining if the assumptions in the Inventory are consistent with current industry practices through review of regulations, public webcasts, and the Natural Gas STAR Program. Finally, QA/QC checks are consistently conducted to minimize human error in the model calculations.

In some areas, EPA identified that certain assumptions in the inventory are not consistent with current industry practice. EPA received several comments suggesting updates to emissions calculations for Petroleum Systems. Commenters noted that the emission factor for oil wells has not been updated to reflect emissions from hydraulically fractured well completions, and suggested data sources for developing updated factors for this source. Commenters also suggested updated data sources for petroleum refineries and pneumatic devices.

See Planned Improvements for more information on these sources.

Recalculations Discussion

Most revisions for the current Inventory relative to the previous report were due to updating the previous report's data with revised data from existing data sources. In addition, when activity data updates are made for a particular emissions source, the entire time series is revised or corrected, which may result in slight changes in estimated emissions from past years.

Gas STAR Reduction Data

EPA has reviewed Gas STAR reduction data and determined that some of the reductions previously deducted from the Natural Gas System emissions estimates should instead be deducted from the Petroleum Systems emissions estimates. In the 2014 inventory, EPA has moved the following reduction activities from the Natural Gas Systems estimates to the Petroleum Systems estimates – Artificial lift: gas lift, Artificial lift: use compression, Artificial lift: use pumping unit, Consolidate crude oil prod and water storage tanks, Lower heater-treater temperature, Re-inject gas for enhanced oil recovery, Re-inject gas into crude, and Route casinghead gas to VRU or compressor). Implementing this change has resulted in a decrease in emissions of 1.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. from petroleum systems.

Planned Improvements

Offshore Platforms

In order to improve the offshore platform emission calculations, more current (post-2000) inventories of the Gulf of Mexico platforms will be reviewed. For example, the GOADS data set to be updated in late 2014, may provide improved information on the number of platforms, platform activity, deep water assignments, and oil and gas production.

GHGRP Data

EPA's GHGRP has published 2011 and 2012 emissions data from the oil and gas sector. GHGRP data is being reviewed for potential incorporation in the Inventory. Expert review and public review draft commenters supported use of GHGRP data from petroleum systems.

Oil Well Completions and Workovers

The Inventory does not currently distinguish between oil wells with hydraulic fracturing and oil wells without hydraulic fracturing for this source. In addition, current Inventory emission factors were developed using an assumption that all oil well workovers and completions are flared. EPA is seeking available information on emissions, activity data, and control technologies for oil well completions and workovers.

Commenters suggested that updated emission factors could be developed for these completion types using GHGRP data on gas well completions and workovers in oil formations, UT Austin-EDF data on co-producing wells, or from initial production data from Bakken, Eagle Ford, and/or Wattenberg fields. Commenters noted that using these data sources results in average factors of 6.2 Mg CH₄ (GHGRP, wells with and without controls), 3.1 Mg CH₄ (UT Austin-EDF, wells with controls), 9.7 Mg CH₄ and 24.7 Mg CH₄ (analyses of Wattenberg and Eagle Ford, wells without controls) per completion/workover, and that total national emissions could be between 96 and 247 Gg CH₄, similar in magnitude to or higher than emissions from gas well completions and workovers. Commenters suggested that these emissions estimates provide a reasonable estimate for oil well completions. Other commenters suggested that existing data from recent field studies or from extrapolation from gas wells in oil formations do not provide a reliable estimate of potential emissions from oil well completions and workovers. EPA will continue to review data available to update emission factors for this source.

Commenters on the expert review draft of the inventory suggested that significant numbers of new oil wells are completed with hydraulic fracturing (75-90 percent of all new oil wells). Commenters on the public review draft noted that FracFocus includes records from 12,056 oil wells fractured in 2012. EPA will assess methods for determining the number of hydraulically fractured oil well completions.

The GHG Inventory currently applies a 7.5 percent workover (refracture) rate for all oil wells. Expert review and public review commenters suggested that this is an incorrect assumption, but that data is not currently available to update the assumption. EPA will continue to seek data on a refracture rate for oil wells.

Petroleum Refineries

EPA received comments on the expert review draft suggesting that EPA replace the Inventory estimate with data from the GHGRP. GHGRP reporters reported emissions of 39 Gg CH₄ from petroleum refineries (0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.), while the national total in the GHG inventory is 19 Gg CH₄ (0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.). EPA reviewed the GHGRP data and plans to make this update in future Inventories.

Pneumatic Devices

Commenters on the expert review and public review drafts noted a number of current and upcoming data sources relevant to both natural gas and oil emissions that could be used to update CH₄ emission factors from pneumatic devices, including UT Austin-EDF, and a 2013 British Columbia pneumatic device study (Prasino 2013). Commenters suggested that EPA develop net factors for different categories of pneumatic devices, such as high-bleed, intermittent-bleed, low-bleed, and no bleed, noting that GHGRP could be a source of activity data for this approach in 2015 when activity data is reported, or that EPA could estimate activity counts using GHGRP data and an estimate of coverage of the reporting rule. One commenter suggested that EPA update pneumatic device emissions estimates in the Inventory using GHGRP data (noting that total emissions for pneumatic devices in both the oil and gas sectors in GHGRP are 861 Gg CH₄ (18.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.) and scaling up emissions to the national level. Further, the commenter recalculated emissions from this source using emission factors developed with UT Austin-EDF data, and calculated natural gas and oil emissions from pneumatic devices to be 1,139 Gg CH₄ (23.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.). EPA will continue to review data available to update emission factors and activity data for this source.

Natural Gas STAR Reductions

The Petroleum Systems Inventory deducts an aggregated value for the Gas STAR reductions for the production industry segment. For future Inventories, EPA will determine whether the reductions can be disaggregated and displayed at the activity-level in the Inventory.

Associated Gas

Commenters on the public review draft of the Inventory suggested that the Associated Gas Venting and Flaring emissions reported to Subpart W should be included in the Inventory, specifically to update the “stripper wells” emissions source category. EPA notes that the Natural Gas Systems Inventory includes a source for flaring of natural gas in the upstream production and processing segments. EPA is analyzing the overlap between the information reported in Subpart W for “Associated Gas Venting and Flaring” and “Flaring” sources with the information available from EIA that is used in the Inventory. EPA will evaluate potential updates to the Inventory for these sources in the future.

Uncertainty Analysis

EPA plans to review and update its uncertainty analysis.

Box 3-6: Carbon Dioxide Transport, Injection, and Geological Storage

Carbon dioxide is produced, captured, transported, and used for Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR) as well as commercial and non-EOR industrial applications. This CO₂ is produced from both naturally-occurring CO₂ reservoirs and from industrial sources such as natural gas processing plants and ammonia plants. In the Inventory, emissions from naturally-produced CO₂ are estimated based on the application.

In the inventory, CO₂ that is used in non-EOR industrial and commercial applications (e.g., food processing, chemical production) is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere during its industrial use. These emissions are discussed in the Carbon Dioxide Consumption section. The naturally-occurring CO₂ used in EOR operations is assumed to be fully sequestered. Additionally, all anthropogenic CO₂ emitted from natural gas processing and ammonia plants is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere, regardless of whether the CO₂ is captured or not. These emissions are currently included in the Natural Gas Systems and the Ammonia Production sections of the inventory report, respectively.

IPCC includes methodological guidance to estimate emissions from the capture, transport, injection, and geological storage of CO₂. The methodology is based on the principle that the carbon capture and storage system should be handled in a complete and consistent manner across the entire Energy sector. The approach accounts for CO₂ captured at natural and industrial sites as well as emissions from capture, transport, and use. For storage specifically, a Tier 3 methodology is outlined for estimating and reporting emissions based on site-specific evaluations. However, IPCC (IPCC 2006) notes that if a national regulatory process exists, emissions information available through that process may support development of CO₂ emissions estimates for geologic storage.

In the United States, facilities that conduct geologic sequestration of CO₂ and all other facilities that inject CO₂, including facilities conducting enhanced oil and gas recovery, are required to report greenhouse gas data annually to EPA through its GHGRP. Facilities conducting geologic sequestration of CO₂ are required to develop and implement an EPA-approved site-specific monitoring, reporting and verification plan, and to report the amount of CO₂ sequestered using a mass balance approach. Data from this program will be evaluated closely and opportunities for improving the emission estimates will be considered.

Preliminary estimates indicate that the amount of CO₂ captured from industrial and natural sites is 46.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (46,198 Gg) (see Table 3-41 and Table 3-42). Site-specific monitoring and reporting data for CO₂ injection sites (i.e., EOR operations) were not readily available, therefore, these estimates assume all CO₂ is emitted. Values for 2012 were proxied from 2011 data.

Table 3-41: Potential Emissions from CO₂ Capture and Transport (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Stage	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Acid Gas Removal Plants	4.8	5.8	6.6	7.0	11.6	11.6	11.6
Naturally Occurring CO ₂	20.8	28.3	36.1	39.7	34.0	34.0	34.0
Ammonia Production Plants	+	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7
Pipelines Transporting CO ₂	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	25.6	34.7	43.3	47.3	46.2	46.2	46.2

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-42: Potential Emissions from CO₂ Capture and Transport (Gg)

Stage	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Acid Gas Removal Plants	4,832	5,798	6,630	7,035	11,554	11,554	11,554
Naturally Occurring CO ₂	20,811	28,267	36,102	39,725	33,967	33,967	33,967
Ammonia Production Plants	+	676	580	580	677	677	677
Pipelines Transporting CO ₂	8	7	8	8	8	8	8
Total	25,643	34,742	43,311	47,340	46,198	46,198	46,198

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Note: Totals do not include emissions from pipelines transporting CO₂. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

3.7 Natural Gas Systems (IPCC Source Category 1B2b)

The U.S. natural gas system encompasses hundreds of thousands of wells, hundreds of processing facilities, and over a million miles of transmission and distribution pipelines. Overall, natural gas systems emitted 129.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6,186 Gg) of CH₄ in 2012, a 17 percent decrease compared to 1990 emissions (see Table 3-43, Table 3-44, and Table 3-45) and 35.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (35,232 Gg) of non-combustion CO₂ in 2012, a 7 percent decrease compared to 1990 emissions (see Table 3-46 and Table 3-47). The decrease in CH₄ emissions is because of the large decrease in emissions from production and distribution. The decrease in production emissions is due to increased voluntary reductions, from activities such as replacing high bleed pneumatic devices, regulatory reductions, and the increased use of plunger lifts for liquids unloading. The decrease in distribution emissions is due to a decrease in cast iron and unprotected steel pipelines.

CH₄ and non-combustion CO₂ emissions from natural gas systems are generally process related, with normal operations, routine maintenance, and system upsets being the primary contributors. Emissions from normal operations include: natural gas engine and turbine uncombusted exhaust, bleed and discharge emissions from pneumatic devices, and fugitive emissions from system components. Routine maintenance emissions originate from pipelines, equipment, and wells during repair and maintenance activities. Pressure surge relief systems and accidents can lead to system upset emissions. Below is a characterization of the four major stages of the natural gas system. Each of the stages is described and the different factors affecting CH₄ and non-combustion CO₂ emissions are discussed.

Field Production. In this initial stage, wells are used to withdraw raw gas from underground formations. Emissions arise from the wells themselves, gathering pipelines, and well-site gas treatment facilities such as dehydrators and separators. Emissions from pneumatic devices, gas wells with liquids unloading, and gas well completions and refracturing (workovers) with and without hydraulic fracturing account for the majority of CH₄ emissions. Flaring emissions account for the majority of the non-combustion CO₂ emissions. Emissions from field production account for approximately 32.2 percent of CH₄ emissions and about 38.8 percent of non-combustion CO₂ emissions from natural gas systems in 2012. CH₄ emissions from field production decreased by 25.2 percent from 1990-2012; however, the trend was not stable over the time series – emissions from field production increased 23.5 percent from 1990-2006 due primarily to increases in hydraulically fractured well completions and workovers, and then declined by 39.4 percent from 2006 to 2012. Reasons for the 2006-2012 trend include an increase in plunger lift use for liquids unloading, increased voluntary reductions over that time period (including those associated with pneumatic devices), and increased RECs use for well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing. CO₂ emissions from field production increased 38.9 percent from 1990 to 2012 due to increases in onshore and offshore flaring.

Processing. In this stage, natural gas liquids and various other constituents from the raw gas are removed, resulting in “pipeline quality” gas, which is injected into the transmission system. Fugitive CH₄ emissions from compressors, including compressor seals, are the primary emission source from this stage. The majority of non-combustion CO₂ emissions come from acid gas removal units, which are designed to remove CO₂ from natural gas. Processing plants account for about 14.4 percent of CH₄ emissions and approximately 60.9 percent of non-combustion CO₂ emissions

from natural gas systems. CH₄ emissions from processing increased by 4.7 percent from 1990 to 2012 as emissions from compressors increased as gas produced increased. CO₂ emissions from processing decreased by 22.7 percent from 1990 to 2012, as a decrease in the quantity of gas processed resulted in a decrease in acid gas removal emissions.

Transmission and Storage. Natural gas transmission involves high pressure, large diameter pipelines that transport gas long distances from field production and processing areas to distribution systems or large volume customers such as power plants or chemical plants. Compressor station facilities, which contain large reciprocating and turbine compressors, are used to move the gas throughout the United States transmission system. Fugitive CH₄ emissions from these compressor stations, pneumatic devices, and from metering and regulating stations account for the majority of the emissions from this stage. Uncombusted engine exhaust is also a source of CH₄ emissions from transmission facilities. Natural gas is also injected and stored in underground formations, or liquefied and stored in above ground tanks, during periods of low demand (e.g., summer), and withdrawn, processed, and distributed during periods of high demand (e.g., winter). Compressors and dehydrators are the primary contributors to emissions from these storage facilities. CH₄ emissions from the transmission and storage sector account for approximately 33.5 percent of emissions from natural gas systems, while CO₂ emissions from transmission and storage account for less than 1 percent of the non-combustion CO₂ emissions from natural gas systems. CH₄ emissions from this source decreased by nearly 11.6 percent from 1990 to 2012 due to increased voluntary reductions (e.g., replacement of high bleed pneumatics with low bleed pneumatics). CO₂ emissions from transmission and storage have increased by 2.7 percent from 1990 to 2012 as the number of compressors has increased.

Distribution. Distribution pipelines take the high-pressure gas from the transmission system at “city gate” stations, reduce the pressure and distribute the gas through primarily underground mains and service lines to individual end users. There were 1,244,470 miles of distribution mains in 2012, an increase of approximately 300,000 miles since 1990 (PHMSA 2013). Distribution system emissions, which account for approximately 19.9 percent of CH₄ emissions from natural gas systems and less than 1 percent of non-combustion CO₂ emissions, result mainly from fugitive emissions from gate stations and pipelines. An increased use of plastic piping, which has lower emissions than other pipe materials, has reduced both CH₄ and CO₂ emissions from this stage. Distribution system CH₄ emissions in 2012 were 22.6 percent lower than 1990 levels (changed from 33.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. to 25.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.), while distribution CO₂ emissions in 2012 were 19.8 percent lower than 1990 levels (CO₂ emission from this segment are less than 0.1 TgCO₂e Eq. across the time series).

Total CH₄ emissions for the four major stages of natural gas systems are shown in Tg CO₂ Eq. (Table 3-43) and Gg (Table 3-44). Table 3-45 provides additional information on how the estimates in Table 3-43 were calculated. Table 3-45 shows the calculated CH₄ release (i.e. potential emissions before any controls are applied) from each stage, and the amount of CH₄ that is estimated to have been flared, captured, or otherwise controlled, and therefore not emitted to the atmosphere. Subtracting the value for CH₄ that is controlled, from the value for calculated potential release of CH₄, results in the total emissions values. More disaggregated information on potential emissions and emissions is available in the Annex 3.5. See Methodology for Estimating CH₄ and CO₂ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems.

Table 3-43: CH₄ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq.)^a

Stage	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Field Production	56.0	67.3	64.0	53.9	48.2	42.6	41.8
Processing	17.9	13.7	14.9	16.1	15.1	17.9	18.7
Transmission and Storage	49.2	41.2	43.1	44.3	43.4	45.2	43.5
Distribution	33.4	29.7	29.6	28.7	28.1	27.5	25.9
Total	156.4	152.0	151.6	142.9	134.7	133.2	129.9

^aThese values represent CH₄ emitted to the atmosphere. CH₄ that is captured, flared, or otherwise controlled (and not emitted to the atmosphere) has been calculated and removed from emission totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-44: CH₄ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems (Gg)^a

Stage	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Field Production	2,664	3,206	3,049	2,566	2,295	2,028	1,992

Processing	852	655	708	768	717	851	892
Transmission and Storage	2,343	1,963	2,050	2,107	2,065	2,153	2,071
Distribution	1,591	1,417	1,411	1,365	1,336	1,311	1,231
Total	7,450	7,240	7,218	6,806	6,413	6,343	6,186

^a These values represent CH₄ emitted to the atmosphere. CH₄ that is captured, flared, or otherwise controlled (and not emitted to the atmosphere) has been calculated and removed from emission totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-45: Calculated Potential CH₄ and Captured/Combusted CH₄ from Natural Gas Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Calculated Potential^a	156.7	180.7	188.7	182.1	182.2	180.9	178.8
Field Production	56.1	80.8	86.5	80.3	80.4	78.3	78.3
Processing	17.9	17.3	19.0	19.3	19.9	21.1	22.0
Transmission and Storage	49.2	51.9	52.5	52.5	52.7	52.7	51.7
Distribution	33.4	30.8	30.7	30.0	29.2	28.8	26.8
Captured/Combusted	0.2	28.7	37.1	39.2	47.5	47.7	48.9
Field Production	0.2	13.5	22.5	26.4	32.2	35.7	36.4
Processing	+	3.5	4.1	3.2	4.8	3.3	3.3
Transmission and Storage	+	10.6	9.5	8.2	9.4	7.5	8.2
Distribution	+	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.1	1.2	0.9
Net Emissions	156.4	152.0	151.6	142.9	134.7	133.2	129.9
Field Production	56.0	67.3	64.0	53.9	48.2	42.6	41.8
Processing	17.9	13.7	14.9	16.1	15.1	17.9	18.7
Transmission and Storage	49.2	41.2	43.1	44.3	43.4	45.2	43.5
Distribution	33.4	29.7	29.6	28.7	28.1	27.5	25.9

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Emissions are less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^a In this context, “potential” means the total emissions calculated before voluntary reductions and regulatory controls are applied.

Table 3-46: Non-combustion CO₂ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Stage	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Field Production	9.8	8.1	11.2	10.9	10.9	13.5	13.7
Processing	27.8	21.7	21.4	21.2	21.3	21.5	21.5
Transmission and Storage	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Distribution	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	37.7	30.0	32.7	32.2	32.4	35.1	35.2

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Emissions are less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-47: Non-combustion CO₂ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems (Gg)

Stage	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Field Production	9,835	8,136	11,215	10,939	10,911	13,511	13,663
Processing	27,763	21,746	21,385	21,188	21,346	21,466	21,469
Transmission and Storage	62	64	65	65	65	65	63
Distribution	46	42	42	41	40	40	37
Total	37,705	29,988	32,707	32,234	32,362	35,082	35,232

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

The methodology for natural gas emissions estimates presented in this Inventory involves the calculation of CH₄ and CO₂ emissions for over 100 emissions sources, and then the summation of emissions for each natural gas sector stage.

The calculation of emissions for each source of emissions in natural gas systems generally occurs in three steps:

Step 1. Calculate Potential Methane – Collect activity data on production and equipment in use and apply emission factors (i.e., scf gas per unit or activity)

Step 2. Compile Reductions Data – Calculate the amount of the methane that is not emitted, using data on voluntary action and regulations

Step 3. Calculate Net Emissions – Deduct methane that is not emitted from the total methane potential estimates to develop net CH₄ emissions, and calculate CO₂ emissions

This approach of calculating potential CH₄ and then applying reductions data to calculate net emissions was used to ensure an accurate time series that reflects real emission trends. As noted below, key data on emissions from many sources are from a 1996 report containing data collected in 1992. Since the time of this study, practices and technologies have changed. While this study still represents best available data for some emission sources, using these emission factors alone to represent actual emissions without adjusting for emissions controls would in many cases overestimate emissions. As updated emission factors reflecting changing practices are not available for most sources, the 1992 emission factors continue to be used for many sources for all years of the Inventory, but they are considered to be potential emissions factors, representing what emissions would be if practices and technologies had not changed over time.

For the Inventory, the calculated potential emissions are adjusted using data on reductions reported to GasSTAR, and data on regulations that result in CH₄ reductions. As more data become available, alternate approaches may be considered. For example, new data on liquids unloading and on hydraulically fractured gas well completions and workovers enabled EPA to disaggregate or stratify these sources into distinct sub-categories based upon different technology types, each with unique emission factors and/or activity data.

Step 1. Calculate Potential Methane—Collect activity data on production and equipment in use and apply emission factors

In the first step, potential CH₄ is calculated by multiplying activity data (such as miles of pipeline or number of wells) by factors that relate that activity data to potential CH₄. Potential CH₄ is the amount of CH₄ that would be emitted in the absence of any control technology or mitigation activity. It is important to note that potential CH₄ factors in most cases do not represent emitted CH₄, and must be adjusted for any emissions-reducing technologies, or practices, as appropriate. For more information, please see the Annex.

Potential Methane Factors

The primary basis for estimates of CH₄ and non-combustion-related CO₂ emissions from the U.S. natural gas industry is a detailed study by the Gas Research Institute and EPA (EPA/GRI 1996). The EPA/GRI study developed over 80 CH₄ emission factors to characterize emissions from the various components within the operating stages of the U.S. natural gas system. The EPA/GRI study was based on a combination of process engineering studies, collection of activity data and measurements at representative gas facilities conducted in the early 1990s. Methane compositions from GTI 2001 are adjusted year to year using gross production for oil and gas supply National Energy Modeling System (NEMS) regions from the EIA. Therefore, emission factors may vary from year to year due to slight changes in the CH₄ composition for each NEMS oil and gas supply module region. The majority of emission factors used in the Inventory were derived from the EPA/GRI study. The emission factors used to estimate CH₄ were also used to calculate non-combustion CO₂ emissions. The Gas Technology Institute's (GTI, formerly GRI) Unconventional Natural Gas and Gas Composition Databases (GTI 2001) were used to adapt the CH₄ emission factors into non-combustion related CO₂ emission factors. Additional information about CO₂ content in transmission quality natural gas was obtained from numerous U.S. transmission companies to help further develop the non-combustion CO₂ emission factors.

Although the Inventory primarily uses EPA/GRI emission factors, significant updates were made to the emissions estimates for two sources in recent Inventories: liquids unloading; and gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing and workovers with hydraulic fracturing (refracturing). In the case of liquids unloading, in the 2013 Inventory, the methodology was revised to calculate national emissions through the use region-specific emission factors developed from well data collected in a survey conducted by API/ANGA (API/ANGA 2012). This approach may result in slight differences in the national results provided by API/ANGA. It is important to note that in this new methodology, the emission factors used for liquids unloading are not potential factors, but are factors for actual emissions. In the case of gas well completions with hydraulic fracturing and workovers with hydraulic fracturing (refracturing), in this Inventory, EPA used the 2011 and 2012 GHGRP Subpart W data to stratify the emission sources into 4 different categories and developed methane emission factors for each category. See the Recalculation Discussion below, and EPA's memo "Updating GHG Inventory Estimate for Hydraulically Fractured" for more information on the methodology for this emission source (EPA 2013d). In addition, recent Inventories introduced updates to emission factors for production condensate tank vents (both with and without control devices) and transmission and storage centrifugal compressors (both with wet seals and with dry seals). See the Annex 3.5 for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate CH₄ and non-combustion CO₂ emissions from natural gas systems.

Updates to emission factors using GHGRP data for natural gas systems (40 CFR 98, subpart W) and other data continue to be evaluated.

Activity Data

Activity data were taken from the following sources: DrillingInfo, Inc (DrillingInfo 2014), American Gas Association (AGA 1991–1998); Bureau of Ocean Energy Management, Regulation and Enforcement (previous Minerals and Management Service) (BOEMRE 2011a, 2011b, 2011c, 2011d); Natural Gas Liquids Reserves Report (EIA 2005); Natural Gas Monthly (EIA 2013a, 2013b, 2013c); the Natural GasSTAR Program annual emissions savings (EPA 2013c); Oil and Gas Journal (OGJ 1997–2013); Pipeline and Hazardous Materials Safety Administration (PHMSA 2013); Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC 2011); Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (EPA 2012 & 2013e); other Energy Information Administration data and publications (EIA 2001, 2004, 2012, 2013, 2014). Data for estimating emissions from hydrocarbon production tanks were incorporated (EPA 1999). Coalbed CH₄ well activity factors were taken from the Wyoming Oil and Gas Conservation Commission (Wyoming 2013) and the Alabama State Oil and Gas Board (Alabama 2013).

For many sources, recent direct activity data are not available. For these sources, either 2011 data was used as proxy for 2012 data, or a set of industry activity data drivers was developed and used to update activity data. Drivers include statistics on gas production, number of wells, system throughput, miles of various kinds of pipe, and other statistics that characterize the changes in the U.S. natural gas system infrastructure and operations. For example, recent data on various types of field separation equipment in the production stage (i.e., heaters, separators, and dehydrators) are unavailable. Each of these types of field separation equipment was determined to relate to the number of non-associated gas wells. Using the number of each type of field separation equipment estimated by GRI/EPA in 1992, and the number of non-associated gas wells in 1992, a factor was developed that is used to estimate the number of each type of field separation equipment throughout the time series. More information on activity data and drivers is available in Annex 3.5.

Step 2. Compile Reductions Data—Calculate the amount of the methane that is not emitted, using data on voluntary action and regulations

The emissions calculated in Step 1 above represent potential emissions from an activity, and do not take into account any use of technologies and practices that reduce emissions. To take into account use of such technologies, data, where available, are collected on both regulatory and voluntary reductions. Regulatory actions reducing emissions include National Emission Standards for Hazardous Air Pollutants (NESHAP) regulations for dehydrator vents and condensate tanks. Voluntary reductions included in the Inventory are those reported to Gas STAR for activities such as replacing a high bleed pneumatic device with a low bleed device, and replacing wet seals with dry seals at reciprocating compressors. For more information on these reductions, please see the Annex. The emission estimates presented in Table 3-43 and Table 3-44 are the CH₄ that is emitted to the atmosphere (i.e., net emissions), not potential emissions without capture or flaring.

Current and future Inventories will include impacts of the New Source Performance Standards (NSPS), which came into effect in October 2012, for oil and gas (EPA 2013b). By separating gas well completions and workovers with

hydraulic fracturing into four categories and developing control technology-specific methane emission factors for each category, EPA is implicitly accounting for NSPS reductions from hydraulically fractured gas wells. The NSPS also has VOC reduction requirements for compressors, storage vessels, pneumatic controllers, and equipment leaks at processing plants, which will also impact CH₄ emissions in future Inventories.

Step 3. Calculate Net Emissions—Deduct methane that is not emitted from the total methane potential estimates to develop net CH₄ emissions, and calculate CO₂ emissions

In the final step, emission reductions from voluntary and regulatory actions are deducted from the total calculated potential emissions to estimate the net emissions that are presented in Table 3-43, and included in the Inventory totals. Note that for liquids unloading, condensate tanks, gas well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing, and centrifugal compressors, emissions are calculated directly using emission factors that vary by technology and account for any control measures in place that reduce methane emissions. See Annex table A-17 for more information on net emissions for specific sources.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis was conducted for previous Inventories to determine the level of uncertainty surrounding estimates of emissions from natural gas systems using the recommended methodology from IPCC. EPA produced the results presented below in Table 3-48, which provide with 95 percent certainty the range within which emissions from this source category are likely to fall for the year 2012. Performed using @RISK software and the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 methodology (Monte Carlo Simulation technique), this analysis provides for the specification of probability density functions for key variables within a computational structure that mirrors the calculation of the Inventory estimate. The IPCC guidance notes that in using this method, "some uncertainties that are not addressed by statistical means may exist, including those arising from omissions or double counting, or other conceptual errors, or from incomplete understanding of the processes that may lead to inaccuracies in estimates developed from models." As a result, the understanding of the uncertainty of emissions estimates for this category will evolve and will improve as the underlying methodologies and datasets improve.

The @RISK model was used to quantify the uncertainty associated with the emissions estimates using the top twelve emission sources for the year 2009. The uncertainty analysis has not yet been updated for the 1990 through 2012 Inventory; instead, the uncertainty ranges calculated previously were applied to 2012 emissions estimates. The majority of sources in the current inventory were calculated using the same emission factors and activity data for which PDFs were developed in the 1990 through 2009 uncertainty analysis. As noted above, several emissions sources have been updated with the current Inventory, and the 2009 uncertainty ranges will not reflect the uncertainty associated with the recently updated emission factors and activity data sources. Please see the Recalculations discussion.

The results presented below provide with 95 percent certainty the range within which emissions from this source category are likely to fall for the year 2012, based on the previously conducted uncertainty assessment using the recommended IPCC methodology. The heterogeneous nature of the natural gas industry makes it difficult to sample facilities that are completely representative of the entire industry. Additionally, highly variable emission rates were measured among many system components, making the calculated average emission rates uncertain. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 3-48. Natural gas systems CH₄ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 105.2 and 168.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. Natural gas systems non-energy CO₂ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 28.5 and 45.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. at 95 percent confidence level.

Table 3-48: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and Non-energy CO₂ Emissions from Natural Gas Systems (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.) ^b	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound ^b	Upper Bound ^b	Lower Bound ^b	Upper Bound ^b
Natural Gas Systems	CH ₄	129.9	105.2	168.9	-19%	+30%

Natural Gas Systems ^c	CO ₂	35.2	28.5	45.8	-19%	+30%
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^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^b All reported values are rounded after calculation. As a result, lower and upper bounds may not be duplicable from other rounded values as shown in Table 3-44 and Table 3-46.

^c An uncertainty analysis for the non-energy CO₂ emissions was not performed. The relative uncertainty estimated (expressed as a percent) from the CH₄ uncertainty analysis was applied to the point estimate of non-energy CO₂ emissions.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification Discussion

The natural gas emission estimates in the Inventory are continually being reviewed and assessed to determine whether emission factors and activity factors accurately reflect current industry practices. A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation. QA/QC checks are consistently conducted to minimize human error in the model calculations. In addition, a thorough review of information associated with regulations, public webcasts, and the Natural GasSTAR Program, is performed to determine that the assumptions in the Inventory are consistent with current industry practices.

In some areas, EPA identified that certain assumptions in the inventory may not be consistent with current industry practice or that improved data sources may be available to update the inventory. EPA received several comments suggesting updates to emissions calculations for Natural Gas Systems, such as improvements to pneumatic devices. Commenters also highlighted information from recent measurements studies. Several recent studies have measured emissions at the source level (e.g., Allen et al. 2013) and at the national or regional level (e.g., Petron 2012, Miller et al. 2013, Karion 2013) with results that differ from EPA's estimate of emissions. A recent study (Brandt et al. 2014) reviewed technical literature on methane emissions and estimated methane emissions from all anthropogenic sources including oil and gas to be greater than EPA's estimate.

See the Planned Improvements Discussion for more information.

QA/QC of Update to Completions and Workovers with Hydraulic Fracturing (Refracturing)

In advance of the expert review period, EPA developed a memo describing the update to hydraulically fractured completions and workovers, and made it available to stakeholders by posting it to EPA's website (EPA 2013d). This memo allowed additional time to review and incorporate feedback on this update into the current Inventory.

EPA received comments from several stakeholders. All comments received considered the update to be an improvement over the previous methodology, particularly with respect to improved transparency. Many commenters had suggestions for improvements to the methodology. Commenters noted that using GHGRP activity data to calculate national emissions underestimates emissions as not all completions and workovers are reported to GHGRP. Other commenters suggested that the completion and workover counts developed using GHGRP may be overestimated due to different interpretations of the data. EPA will continue to assess completion and workover counts in the Inventory.

EPA continues to evaluate these comments and consider how they may be used to update the Inventory. Information on suggestions received can be found in the Recalculations Discussion and Planned Improvements sections of the Inventory.

Recalculations Discussion

EPA received information and data related to the emission estimates through the Inventory preparation process and previous Inventories' formal public notice periods. EPA carefully evaluated all relevant information provided, and made updates to estimates for completions with hydraulic fracturing and workovers with hydraulic fracturing

(refracturing), Natural GasSTAR reductions, and well counts and completion and workover counts. Emission estimates will continue to be refined to reflect the most robust data and information available.

The recalculations in the current Inventory relative to the previous report primarily impacted CH₄ emission estimates in the production sector, which in 2011 decreased from 53.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in the previous Inventory to 42.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. in the current Inventory.

Completions with Hydraulic Fracturing and Workovers with Hydraulic Fracturing (Refracturing)

Changes made to the methodology for completions with hydraulic fracturing and workovers with hydraulic fracturing (refracturing) resulted in a decrease in the estimate of CH₄ emissions.

A number of stakeholder comments to the previous Inventory supported moving away from the use of a potential methane factor, and moving toward use of control technology-specific, net emission factors for HF gas well completions and workovers. Commenters suggested that EPA continue to review data reported to the Petroleum and Natural Gas Systems source category (Subpart W) of EPA's GHGRP, and seek other data on emissions from HF gas well completions and workovers to evaluate emission factors and the coverage of the data on reductions from RECs and flaring.

During the development of the current Inventory, EPA evaluated the 2011 and 2012 GHGRP Subpart W data on gas well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing. Completions and workovers from the data set were stratified into four different categories: hydraulic fracturing completions and workovers that vent, flared hydraulic fracturing completions and workovers, hydraulic fracturing completions and workovers with RECs, and hydraulic fracturing completions and workovers with RECs that flare. For each category, 2011 and 2012 GHGRP Subpart W data were used to develop control technology-specific methane emission factors and estimate corresponding activity data for the entire time series. Further description of the methodology is available in EPA's published memo "Updating GHG Inventory Estimate for Hydraulically Fractured Gas Well Completions and Workovers" (EPA 2013).

EPA developed a time series of activity data for each category for 1990 through 2012. For RECs, EPA assumed 0 percent RECs use from 1990-2000, used GHGRP RECs percentage for 2011 and 2012, and then uses linear interpolation between the 2000 and 2011 percentages. For flaring, EPA used an assumption of 10 percent (the average of the percentage of completions and workovers that were flared in 2011 and 2012 GHGRP data) flaring from 1990-2010 to recognize that some flaring has occurred over that time period. For 2011 and 2012, EPA uses the GHGRP data on flaring. The remainder of completions and workovers are assigned to the venting category. EPA plans to use GHGRP data annually to develop activity data for the four completion/workover categories. This will allow the inventory to reflect changes in RECs counts and flaring, including those resulting from NSPS OOOO.

Emissions of CH₄ from gas well completions and workovers with hydraulic fracturing were calculated at the NEMS regional level, to be consistent with other production sector subcategories. EPA calculated emissions at the NEMS region level using regional counts for workovers and completions, but used national emission factors and national assumptions for the split between completions and workovers in the four categories. Emissions rates and practices will vary by region, and future inventories may reflect this variability.

Because the revised emission factors for this source vary by technology and account for any control measures in place that reduce methane emissions, reductions reported to the Natural Gas STAR Program from the use of reduced emissions completions are implicitly included in the net emissions estimate, and are no longer deducted from the Inventory. Likewise, regulatory reductions are implicitly included using the new methodology and are therefore not separately deducted. Stakeholders interested in information on the reductions reported to the Natural Gas STAR Program can find this information at <http://www.epa.gov/gasstar/accomplishments/index.html#three>.

EPA received several comments on the expert review and public drafts generally supporting this approach, and several comments recommending improvements to the data used in the approach.

Several commenters recommended use of data from a study of production sector emissions led by University of Texas Austin, sponsored by the Environmental Defense Fund (UT Austin-EDF study) (Allen et al. 2013) to develop the emission factors, and several commenters suggested using data from UT Austin-EDF for comparison and verification of the emissions factors. Commenters provided comparison to UT Austin-EDF study emission factors.

The average emissions from the GHGRP data for wells that vent without flaring or RECs (41 Mg CH₄) are significantly higher than the UT Austin-EDF study average value (0.83 Mg CH₄); however, according to commenters, it is within the range of expected values based on the study (1-124 Mg CH₄). The UT Austin-EDF study had an average emissions value for wells with RECs that do not flare that was similar to the GHGRP data (4 Mg CH₄ for UT Austin-EDF, versus 3 Mg CH₄ for GHGRP). UT Austin-EDF observed lower emissions from wells with RECs that flare (1.5-1.8 Mg CH₄) than the GHGRP data (6 Mg CH₄).

Other commenters suggested that EPA use only measured data in its calculation, and suggested that EPA remove outliers from the GHGRP data set. Commenters provided factors calculated using only GHGRP measured data for 2011 and 2012. Factors from measured data for wells that vent and wells with RECs that vent were less than 50 percent the value of the factors calculated using all data. Factors calculated using measured data for RECs with flaring were higher than values calculated using all data, and factors using measured data only for wells that flare without RECs were lower than using all data in 2011 and higher in 2012. Commenters noted that the accuracy of the proposed approach depends on the accuracy of the GHGRP data. Commenters noted their concerns with the use of calculation equations in GHGRP, noting that they may over- or under estimate emissions, compared with measured data. Commenters suggesting removal of outliers noted that a small number of companies reporting to GHGRP represent a majority of total emissions in 2012.

EPA used all of the data on hydraulically fractured gas well completions and workovers, as reported to the GHGRP.

EPA received comments suggesting moving to a two category approach—a category for wells without RECs or flaring, and a category for wells with RECs and/or flaring. The commenter suggested that the emission factors for wells with RECs with and without flaring and wells that flare without RECs are very similar. The commenter also notes some potential ambiguity in how wells with purposefully designed separation equipment are categorized in the RECs and flaring categories. EPA has not changed the approach in the final Inventory, but will consider these changes for future inventories.

Natural GasSTAR Reductions

In general, the Inventory continues to use aggregated GasSTAR reductions by natural gas system segment (i.e., production, processing, transmission and storage, and distribution). For some sources, specific emissions reductions activities reported to GasSTAR are matched to potential emissions calculated in the Inventory to calculate net emissions for those sources. The QA/QC of the Inventory identified areas for improvement and resulted in several updates to the Gas STAR reductions methodology for the current Inventory.

Two updates impacted the total reductions included in the Inventory.

(1) EPA revised the categorization of some reduction activities from one-year to ongoing. One-year reduction activities refer to those activities that accrue reductions for only the year in which they were conducted and have to be repeated every year to accrue reductions every year. For example, “directed inspection and maintenance” has to be conducted every year and in each year the reduction from that year is accounted in the inventory. On the other hand, ongoing reductions refer to those activities that once implemented accrue reductions every year that point onwards, such as a vapor recovery system on a crude oil storage tank. In QA/QC of the Gas STAR reduction data for this year’s Inventory, EPA identified certain ongoing reduction activities such as “reduce emissions when taking compressors offline” that were miscategorized as one year reductions in previous Inventories, and recategorized them to ongoing reductions, as appropriate.

(2) EPA moved the following eight reduction activities (Artificial lift: gas lift, Artificial lift: use compression, Artificial lift: use pumping unit, Consolidate crude oil prod and water storage tanks, Lower heater-treater temperature, Re-inject gas for enhanced oil recovery, Re-inject gas into crude, and Route casinghead gas to VRU or compressor) to the Petroleum Systems estimate from the Natural Gas Systems estimate because the corresponding emission sources reside in Petroleum Systems.

The net impact of these two changes is an average increase in Gas STAR reductions of around 1% across the time series.

Other changes did not impact the quantity of Gas STAR reductions removed from the Inventory, but instead impacted the allocation of reductions between activities and segments of the Inventory.

Several categories have been added to the net emissions table (Annex Table A-125) (chemical injection pumps in production, fugitives reciprocating compressors and AGR vents in processing, gas engines in transmission and storage, mishaps/dig-ins in distribution), and several categories have been removed from the net emissions table (kimray pumps from production and blowdowns and venting from processing) and included in the “other reductions” category. EPA determined that several reduction activities that were in prior years included in the “other reductions” category can be mapped to relevant emission sources. For example, the reduction activity “convert natural gas driven chemical pumps” can be mapped to the “chemical injection pumps” emission source in the production segment. On the other hand, some reduction activities were incorrectly mapped to the emission sources in the previous Inventory. For example, the reduction activity “use composite wrap repair” was earlier associated with “blowdown venting” in processing. However, this is incorrect as the reduction activity is not related to the blowdown activity. Such discrepancies were addressed in this year’s Inventory.

In addition, some reduction activities have been re-allocated to different segments of the industry. For example, the reduction activity “identify and rehabilitate leaky distribution pipe” was moved from the “other” category in transmission to the “other” category in distribution.

“CH₄ Reductions Derived from the Natural GasSTAR Program (Gg)” in Annex 3.5 presents sources for which GasSTAR reductions can be matched to Inventory emissions sources, and net emissions values for these sources are presented in Table “Net emissions for select sources (Gg)” of Annex 3.5.

Well Counts and Completion and Workover Counts

EPA reassessed its processing of DrillingInfo data for well counts and completion counts, and updated its methodology for the Inventory. As a result, total gas well counts across the time series increased by around 6 percent compared to the 2013 Inventory counts, leading to an increase in calculated emissions. This is primarily due to two factors that differ from last year’s Inventory methodology:

(1) The methodology which processes the raw DrillingInfo data into a table containing individual well information by year was recently updated to distribute reported lease-level production among all wells on the lease. Previously, lease-level production was attributed to a single well on a lease, meaning the other wells on the lease were not eligible to be counted as actively producing in a given year. In the previous Inventory, state-specific processing was conducted to account for this as a known issue for Michigan wells. Now that the distribution methodology is applied across the board, well counts in other states also increased.

(2) The crosswalk used to assign individual wells to a NEMS region is on a state level except for Texas and New Mexico; these states span multiple NEMS regions, and the crosswalk is on a county level. During QC, slight errors in the reported county name (e.g., misspellings) were identified in several DrillingInfo records. The NEMS crosswalk was updated to include all reported variations of county names in TX and NM, increasing well counts in these states across the time series in each category.

Flaring Emissions

In addition to the methodological updates described above, an update to the data source for CO₂ from flaring resulted in an increase in those emissions of approximately 3 Tg CO₂ Eq. This change in the emissions estimate does not reflect a change in the Inventory methodology, but instead an update to the underlying data source from EIA. EIA activity data on the amount of natural gas vented and flared for 2011 were not available for last year’s Inventory. EPA used 2010 activity data from EIA as a proxy for 2011. Updated EIA activity data for 2011 showed a larger quantity of gas vented and flared than the previous EIA estimate. The use of the updated activity data increased the emissions estimate from this source. The vented and flared gas volume published by EIA includes both onshore production and processing segment estimates, but the label in previous Inventory tables incorrectly indicated the flaring emissions to be from the production segment only. EPA has updated the annex tables to indicate that this source of emissions includes both production and processing.

Planned Improvements

EPA will continue to refine the emission estimates to reflect the most robust information available. Substantial amounts of new information will be made available in the coming years through a number of channels, including

EPA's GHGRP, research studies by various organizations, government and academic researchers, and industry. There are relevant ongoing studies that are collecting new information related to natural gas system emissions (e.g. GTI data on pipelines, University of Texas at Austin (UT Austin) and Environmental Defense Fund (EDF) data on natural gas systems). EPA looks forward to reviewing information and data from these studies as they become available for potential incorporation in the Inventory. For example, EPA anticipates reviewing upcoming data on transmission and storage, and distribution system emissions for potential updates to the 1990-2013 Inventory report.

Well Counts and Completion and Workover Counts

Commenters on the public review draft suggested that EPA review its estimate of completions and workover counts from the GHGRP data, noting that there are different interpretations of the data that would result in different counts. For example, for the Inventory, EPA calculated total workovers in GHGRP as the sum of the number of reported vented and flared workovers plus the number of reported workovers with purposely designed separation equipment. Other groups have interpreted the workovers with purposely designed separation equipment category to be a subset of total vented and flared workovers. Other commenters noted that using GHGRP activity data to calculate national emissions underestimates emissions as not all completions and workovers are reported to GHGRP. EPA will continue to assess well counts and completions and workover counts in the Inventory to determine where improvements can be made.

Uncertainty Analysis

Since EPA last calculated uncertainty in the Inventory, several updates have been made which may impact the uncertainty estimate (e.g. updates to liquids unloading and hydraulically fractured well completions and workovers). EPA plans to update uncertainty in future inventories.

Methane Measurement Studies

Several recent studies have measured emissions at the source level (e.g., Allen et al. 2013) and at the national or regional level (e.g., Petron et al. 2012, Miller et al. 2013, Karion et al. 2013) and calculated emissions estimates that differ from EPA's estimate of emissions. A recent study (Brandt et al. 2014) reviewed technical literature on methane emissions, and estimated methane emissions from all anthropogenic sources including oil and gas to be greater than EPA's estimate. EPA is considering how such measurement studies can be used to update Inventory estimates. Some factors for consideration include whether measurements taken are representative of all natural gas producing areas in the United States, and what activities were taking place at the time of measurement (general operating conditions or high-emission venting events), and how such measurements can inform emission factors and activity data used to calculate national emissions.

Commenters on the public review draft specifically highlighted articles and studies on leaks from distribution systems in cities (e.g., McGeehan et al. 2014, Jackson et al. 2014, Payne and Ackley 2012, Payne and Ackley 2013a, 2013b; Phillips et al. 2012; Peischl et al. 2013), and recommended that EPA update its estimates of emissions from distribution systems.

Some commenters suggested that top down studies are complementary to bottom up calculations and noted that as studies improve, they will illuminate specific sources for re-examination in bottom up studies. Commenters suggested that these studies can provide independent data on overall emissions from Industry. Some commenters encouraged EPA to find ways to utilize measurement data to update the Inventory. Commenters suggested that based on review of atmospheric and other studies, sources that may be underestimated include wells, pneumatic devices, and liquids unloading.

Other commenters suggested that top down studies can be used for gross verification of estimates, but that data from bottom up studies are more suitable for updates to the Inventory. Commenters suggested that the existing studies have been either regional and not representative of the U.S., or do not represent current operations. Commenters noted that studies attempting to reconcile differences between top down and bottom up estimates are underway.

EPA will continue to review new data from measurement studies to assess and potentially update Inventory estimates.

Pneumatic Devices

Commenters suggested that emissions from pneumatic devices may be underestimated and noted a number of current and upcoming data sources that could be used to update CH₄ emission factors from pneumatic devices, including UT Austin-EDF, GHGRP, and a 2013 British Columbia pneumatic device study (Prasino 2013). Commenters on the public and expert review draft Inventories suggested that EPA develop net factors for different categories of pneumatic devices, such as high-bleed, intermittent-bleed, low-bleed, and no-bleed, noting that in the future, GHGRP could be a source of activity data for this approach in 2015 when activity data is reported, or that EPA could estimate activity counts using GHGRP data and an estimate of coverage of GHGRP. One commenter suggested that EPA update pneumatic device emissions estimates in the Inventory using GHGRP data (noting that total emissions for pneumatic devices in both the oil and gas sectors in GHGRP are 861 Gg CH₄ (18.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.) compared with 787 Gg CH₄ (16.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.) in the expert review draft Inventory) and scaling up emissions to the national level. Further, commenters recalculated emissions from this source using emission factors developed with UT Austin-EDF data, and calculated natural gas and oil emissions from pneumatic devices to be 1,139 Gg CH₄ (23.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.). EPA is evaluating potential improvements to its pneumatic devices estimates for future Inventories.

Other Methodological and Data Updates

EPA is evaluating potential improvements and clarifications to equipment leaks and gathering and boosting calculations.

EPA will review its methodology for hydraulically fractured gas well completions and workovers and consider moving to a two-factor approach (controlled and uncontrolled) instead of the four-factor approach (uncontrolled, flared, RECs without flaring and RECs with flaring) used in the current Inventory. Commenters on the public review draft suggested that EPA use national factors for liquids unloading instead of regional factors. EPA will consider these approaches for future inventories.

3.8 Energy Sources of Indirect Greenhouse Gas Emissions

In addition to the main greenhouse gases addressed above, many energy-related activities generate emissions of indirect greenhouse gases. Total emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) from energy-related activities from 1990 to 2012 are reported in Table 3-49.

Table 3-49: NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions from Energy-Related Activities (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
NO_x	21,106	16,542	13,651	12,720	11,959	11,696	10,964
Mobile Combustion	10,862	10,250	8,481	7,809	7,307	7,214	6,732
Stationary Combustion	10,023	5,847	4,698	4,365	4,031	3,787	3,538
Oil and Gas Activities	139	317	386	464	543	621	621
Waste Combustion	82	128	85	81	77	73	73
International Bunker Fuels ^a	1,956	1,704	1,832	1,692	1,790	1,553	1,398
CO	125,640	64,427	51,444	44,785	45,158	43,300	43,300
Mobile Combustion	119,360	58,062	46,003	39,219	39,468	37,486	37,486
Stationary Combustion	5,000	4,644	3,959	4,036	4,112	4,188	4,188
Waste Combustion	978	1,402	1,244	1,164	1,085	1,005	1,005
Oil and Gas Activities	302	318	238	366	493	621	621
International Bunker Fuels ^a	103	133	129	121	136	137	133
NMVOCs	12,620	7,133	7,283	7,114	7,295	7,058	6,865
Mobile Combustion	10,932	5,667	5,059	4,652	4,596	4,118	3,925
Oil and Gas Activities	554	510	1,580	1,806	2,032	2,257	2,257
Stationary Combustion	912	715	530	553	576	602	602
Waste Combustion	222	241	114	103	92	81	81
International Bunker Fuels ^a	57	54	57	53	56	51	46

^a These values are presented for informational purposes only and are not included in totals.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Emission estimates for 1990 through 2012 were obtained from data published on the National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site (EPA 2013), and disaggregated based on EPA (2003). Emission estimates for 2012 for non-EGU and non-mobile sources are held constant from 2011 in EPA (2013). Emissions were calculated either for individual categories or for many categories combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of raw material processed) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual applications from various agencies.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which together relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, AP-42 (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA databases.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainties in these estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and accurate estimates of activity data. A quantitative uncertainty analysis was not performed.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

3.9 International Bunker Fuels (IPCC Source Category 1: Memo Items)

Emissions resulting from the combustion of fuels used for international transport activities, termed international bunker fuels under the UNFCCC, are not included in national emission totals, but are reported separately based upon location of fuel sales. The decision to report emissions from international bunker fuels separately, instead of allocating them to a particular country, was made by the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee in establishing the Framework Convention on Climate Change.¹⁰⁷ These decisions are reflected in the IPCC methodological guidance, including the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*, in which countries are requested to report emissions from ships or aircraft that depart from their ports with fuel purchased within national boundaries and are engaged in international transport separately from national totals (IPCC 2006).¹⁰⁸

Two transport modes are addressed under the IPCC definition of international bunker fuels: aviation and marine.¹⁰⁹ Greenhouse gases emitted from the combustion of international bunker fuels, like other fossil fuels, include CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O for marine transport modes, and CO₂ and N₂O for aviation transport modes. Emissions from ground transport activities—by road vehicles and trains—even when crossing international borders are allocated to the country where the fuel was loaded into the vehicle and, therefore, are not counted as bunker fuel emissions.

The IPCC Guidelines distinguish between different modes of air traffic. Civil aviation comprises aircraft used for the commercial transport of passengers and freight, military aviation comprises aircraft under the control of national armed forces, and general aviation applies to recreational and small corporate aircraft. The IPCC Guidelines further define international bunker fuel use from civil aviation as the fuel combusted for civil (e.g., commercial) aviation purposes by aircraft arriving or departing on international flight segments. However, as mentioned above, and in keeping with the IPCC Guidelines, only the fuel purchased in the United States and used by aircraft taking-off (i.e., departing) from the United States are reported here. The standard fuel used for civil aviation is kerosene-type jet fuel, while the typical fuel used for general aviation is aviation gasoline.¹¹⁰

Emissions of CO₂ from aircraft are essentially a function of fuel use. N₂O emissions also depend upon engine characteristics, flight conditions, and flight phase (i.e., take-off, climb, cruise, decent, and landing). Recent data suggest that little or no CH₄ is emitted by modern engines (Anderson et al., 2011), and as a result, CH₄ emissions from this category are considered zero. In jet engines, N₂O is primarily produced by the oxidation of atmospheric nitrogen, and the majority of emissions occur during the cruise phase. International marine bunkers comprise emissions from fuels burned by ocean-going ships of all flags that are engaged in international transport. Ocean-going ships are generally classified as cargo and passenger carrying, military (i.e., U.S. Navy), fishing, and

¹⁰⁷ See report of the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee for a Framework Convention on Climate Change on the work of its ninth session, held at Geneva from 7 to 18 February 1994 (A/AC.237/55, annex I, para. 1c).

¹⁰⁸ Note that the definition of international bunker fuels used by the UNFCCC differs from that used by the International Civil Aviation Organization.

¹⁰⁹ Most emission related international aviation and marine regulations are under the rubric of the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) or the International Maritime Organization (IMO), which develop international codes, recommendations, and conventions, such as the International Convention of the Prevention of Pollution from Ships (MARPOL).

¹¹⁰ Naphtha-type jet fuel was used in the past by the military in turbojet and turboprop aircraft engines.

miscellaneous support ships (e.g., tugboats). For the purpose of estimating greenhouse gas emissions, international bunker fuels are solely related to cargo and passenger carrying vessels, which is the largest of the four categories, and military vessels. Two main types of fuels are used on sea-going vessels: distillate diesel fuel and residual fuel oil. CO₂ is the primary greenhouse gas emitted from marine shipping.

Overall, aggregate greenhouse gas emissions in 2012 from the combustion of international bunker fuels from both aviation and marine activities were 106.9 Tg CO₂ Eq., or 2.3 percent above emissions in 1990 (see Table 3-50 and Table 3-51). Emissions from international flights and international shipping voyages departing from the United States have increased by 69.7 percent and decreased by 36.9 percent, respectively, since 1990. The majority of these emissions were in the form of CO₂; however, small amounts of CH₄ (from marine transport modes) and N₂O were also emitted.

Table 3-50: CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O Emissions from International Bunker Fuels (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Mode	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	103.5	113.1	114.3	106.4	117.0	111.7	105.8
Aviation	38.0	60.1	56.1	52.8	61.0	64.8	64.5
<i>Commercial</i>	30.0	55.6	52.4	49.2	57.4	61.7	61.4
<i>Military</i>	8.1	4.5	3.8	3.6	3.6	3.1	3.1
Marine	65.4	53.0	58.2	53.6	56.0	46.9	41.3
CH₄	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Aviation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Marine	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N₂O	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0
Aviation	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
Marine	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3
Total	104.5	114.3	115.5	107.5	118.2	112.8	106.9

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Includes aircraft cruise altitude emissions.

Table 3-51: CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from International Bunker Fuels (Gg)

Gas/Mode	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	103,463	113,139	114,342	106,410	116,992	111,660	105,805
Aviation	38,034	60,125	56,146	52,785	60,967	64,790	64,524
Marine	65,429	53,014	58,196	53,625	56,025	46,870	41,281
CH₄	7	5	6	5	6	5	4
Aviation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Marine	7	5	6	5	6	5	4
N₂O	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Aviation	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Marine	2	1	1	1	1	1	1

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Includes aircraft cruise altitude emissions.

Table 3-52: Aviation CO₂ and N₂O Emissions for International Transport (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Aviation Mode	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Commercial Aircraft	30.0	55.6	52.4	49.2	57.4	61.7	61.4
Military Aircraft	8.1	4.5	3.8	3.6	3.6	3.1	3.1
Total	38.0	60.1	56.1	52.8	61.0	64.8	64.5

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Includes aircraft cruise altitude emissions.

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ were estimated by applying C content and fraction oxidized factors to fuel consumption activity data. This approach is analogous to that described under CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion. Carbon content and fraction oxidized factors for jet fuel, distillate fuel oil, and residual fuel oil were taken directly from EIA and are presented in Annex 2.1, Annex 2.2, and Annex 3.8 of this Inventory. Density conversions were taken from Chevron (2000), ASTM (1989), and USAF (1998). Heat content for distillate fuel oil and residual fuel oil were taken from EIA (2014) and USAF (1998), and heat content for jet fuel was taken from EIA (2013). A complete description of the methodology and a listing of the various factors employed can be found in Annex 2.1. See Annex 3.8 for a specific discussion on the methodology used for estimating emissions from international bunker fuel use by the U.S. military.

Emission estimates for CH₄ and N₂O were calculated by multiplying emission factors by measures of fuel consumption by fuel type and mode. Emission factors used in the calculations of CH₄ and N₂O emissions were obtained from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) and the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC 2006). For aircraft emissions, the following values, in units of grams of pollutant per kilogram of fuel consumed (g/kg), were employed: 0.1 for N₂O (IPCC 2006). For marine vessels consuming either distillate diesel or residual fuel oil the following values (g/MJ), were employed: 0.32 for CH₄ and 0.08 for N₂O. Activity data for aviation included solely jet fuel consumption statistics, while the marine mode included both distillate diesel and residual fuel oil.

Activity data on domestic and international aircraft fuel consumption were developed by the U.S. Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) using radar-informed data from the FAA Enhanced Traffic Management System (ETMS) for 1990, 2000 through 2013 as modeled with the Aviation Environmental Design Tool (AEDT). This bottom-up approach is built from modeling dynamic aircraft performance for each flight occurring within an individual calendar year. The analysis incorporates data on the aircraft type, date, flight identifier, departure time, arrival time, departure airport, arrival airport, ground delay at each airport, and real-world flight trajectories. To generate results for a given flight within AEDT, the radar-informed aircraft data is correlated with engine and aircraft performance data to calculate fuel burn and exhaust emissions. Information on exhaust emissions for in-production aircraft engines comes from the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) Aircraft Engine Emissions Databank (EDB). This bottom-up approach is in accordance with the Tier 3B method from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories.

International aviation CO₂ estimates for 1990 and 2000 through 2012 are obtained from FAA's AEDT model (FAA 2013). The radar-informed method that was used to estimate CO₂ emissions for commercial aircraft for 1990, and 2000 through 2012 is not possible for 1991 through 1999 because the radar data set is not available for years prior to 2000. FAA developed OAG schedule-informed inventories modeled with AEDT and great circle trajectories for 1990, 2000 and 2010. Because fuel consumption and CO₂ emission estimates for years 1991-1999 are unavailable, consumption estimates for these years were calculated using fuel consumption estimates from the Bureau of Transportation Statistics (DOT 1991 through 2012), adjusted based on 2000 through 2005 data.

Data on U.S. Department of Defense (DoD) aviation bunker fuels and total jet fuel consumed by the U.S. military was supplied by the Office of the Under Secretary of Defense (Installations and Environment), DoD. Estimates of the percentage of each Service's total operations that were international operations were developed by DoD. Military aviation bunkers included international operations, operations conducted from naval vessels at sea, and operations conducted from U.S. installations principally over international water in direct support of military operations at sea. Military aviation bunker fuel emissions were estimated using military fuel and operations data synthesized from unpublished data by the Defense Energy Support Center, under DoD's Defense Logistics Agency (DLA Energy 2013). Together, the data allow the quantity of fuel used in military international operations to be estimated. Densities for each jet fuel type were obtained from a report from the U.S. Air Force (USAF 1998). Final jet fuel consumption estimates are presented in Table 3-53. See Annex 3.8 for additional discussion of military data.

Activity data on distillate diesel and residual fuel oil consumption by cargo or passenger carrying marine vessels departing from U.S. ports were taken from unpublished data collected by the Foreign Trade Division of the U.S. Department of Commerce's Bureau of the Census (DOC 2011) for 1990 through 2001, 2007, through 2011, and the Department of Homeland Security's Bunker Report for 2003 through 2006 (DHS 2008). Fuel consumption data for 2002 was interpolated due to inconsistencies in reported fuel consumption data. Activity data on distillate diesel consumption by military vessels departing from U.S. ports were provided by DLA Energy (2013). The total amount

of fuel provided to naval vessels was reduced by 13 percent to account for fuel used while the vessels were not-underway (i.e., in port). Data on the percentage of steaming hours underway versus not-underway were provided by the U.S. Navy. These fuel consumption estimates are presented in Table 3-54.

Table 3-53: Aviation Jet Fuel Consumption for International Transport (Million Gallons)

Nationality	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
U.S. and Foreign Carriers	3,222	5,983	5,634	5,293	6,173	6,634	6,604
U.S. Military	862	462	386	367	367	319	321
Total	4,084	6,445	6,021	5,660	6,540	6,953	6,925

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-54: Marine Fuel Consumption for International Transport (Million Gallons)

Fuel Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Residual Fuel Oil	4,781	3,881	4,373	4,040	4,141	3,463	3,069
Distillate Diesel Fuel & Other	617	444	445	426	476	393	280
U.S. Military Naval Fuels	522	471	437	374	448	382	381
Total	5,920	4,796	5,254	4,841	5,065	4,237	3,730

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Emission estimates related to the consumption of international bunker fuels are subject to the same uncertainties as those from domestic aviation and marine mobile combustion emissions; however, additional uncertainties result from the difficulty in collecting accurate fuel consumption activity data for international transport activities separate from domestic transport activities.¹¹¹ For example, smaller aircraft on shorter routes often carry sufficient fuel to complete several flight segments without refueling in order to minimize time spent at the airport gate or take advantage of lower fuel prices at particular airports. This practice, called tankering, when done on international flights, complicates the use of fuel sales data for estimating bunker fuel emissions. Tankering is less common with the type of large, long-range aircraft that make many international flights from the United States, however. Similar practices occur in the marine shipping industry where fuel costs represent a significant portion of overall operating costs and fuel prices vary from port to port, leading to some tankering from ports with low fuel costs.

Uncertainties exist with regard to the total fuel used by military aircraft and ships, and in the activity data on military operations and training that were used to estimate percentages of total fuel use reported as bunker fuel emissions. Total aircraft and ship fuel use estimates were developed from DoD records, which document fuel sold to the Navy and Air Force from the Defense Logistics Agency. These data may slightly over or under estimate actual total fuel use in aircraft and ships because each Service may have procured fuel from, and/or may have sold to, traded with, and/or given fuel to other ships, aircraft, governments, or other entities. There are uncertainties in aircraft operations and training activity data. Estimates for the quantity of fuel actually used in Navy and Air Force flying activities reported as bunker fuel emissions had to be estimated based on a combination of available data and expert judgment. Estimates of marine bunker fuel emissions were based on Navy vessel steaming hour data, which reports fuel used while underway and fuel used while not underway. This approach does not capture some voyages that would be classified as domestic for a commercial vessel. Conversely, emissions from fuel used while not underway preceding an international voyage are reported as domestic rather than international as would be done for a commercial vessel. There is uncertainty associated with ground fuel estimates for 1997 through 2001. Small fuel quantities may have been used in vehicles or equipment other than that which was assumed for each fuel type.

There are also uncertainties in fuel end-uses by fuel-type, emissions factors, fuel densities, diesel fuel sulfur content, aircraft and vessel engine characteristics and fuel efficiencies, and the methodology used to back-calculate the data

¹¹¹ See uncertainty discussions under Carbon Dioxide Emissions from Fossil Fuel Combustion.

set to 1990 using the original set from 1995. The data were adjusted for trends in fuel use based on a closely correlating, but not matching, data set. All assumptions used to develop the estimate were based on process knowledge, Department and military Service data, and expert judgments. The magnitude of the potential errors related to the various uncertainties has not been calculated, but is believed to be small. The uncertainties associated with future military bunker fuel emission estimates could be reduced through additional data collection.

Although aggregate fuel consumption data have been used to estimate emissions from aviation, the recommended method for estimating emissions of gases other than CO₂ in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* is to use data by specific aircraft type, number of individual flights and, ideally, movement data to better differentiate between domestic and international aviation and to facilitate estimating the effects of changes in technologies. The IPCC also recommends that cruise altitude emissions be estimated separately using fuel consumption data, while landing and take-off (LTO) cycle data be used to estimate near-ground level emissions of gases other than CO₂.¹¹²

There is also concern regarding the reliability of the existing DOC (2011) data on marine vessel fuel consumption reported at U.S. customs stations due to the significant degree of inter-annual variation.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for international bunker fuels was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures that were implemented involved checks specifically focusing on the activity data and emission factor sources and methodology used for estimating CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O from international bunker fuels in the United States. Emission totals for the different sectors and fuels were compared and trends were investigated. No corrective actions were necessary.

Recalculations Discussion

Changes to emission estimates are due to revisions made to historical activity data for military aircraft consumption from DLA Energy 2013. These historical data changes resulted in changes to the emission estimates for the most recent inventory year compared to the previous Inventory. This equaled an increase in emissions from international bunker fuels of 0.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.3 percent) in total emissions in 2011.

¹¹² U.S. aviation emission estimates for CO, NO_x, and NMVOCs are reported by EPA's National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site, and reported under the Mobile Combustion section. It should be noted that these estimates are based solely upon LTO cycles and consequently only capture near ground-level emissions, which are more relevant for air quality evaluations. These estimates also include both domestic and international flights. Therefore, estimates reported under the Mobile Combustion section overestimate IPCC-defined domestic CO, NO_x, and NMVOC emissions by including landing and take-off (LTO) cycles by aircraft on international flights, but underestimate because they do not include emissions from aircraft on domestic flight segments at cruising altitudes. The estimates in Mobile Combustion are also likely to include emissions from ocean-going vessels departing from U.S. ports on international voyages.

3.10 Wood Biomass and Ethanol Consumption (IPCC Source Category 1A)

The combustion of biomass fuels such as wood, charcoal, and wood waste and biomass-based fuels such as ethanol generates CO₂ in addition to CH₄ and N₂O already covered in this chapter. In line with the reporting requirements for inventories submitted under the UNFCCC, CO₂ emissions from biomass combustion have been estimated separately from fossil fuel CO₂ emissions and are not directly included in the energy sector contributions to U.S. totals. In accordance with IPCC methodological guidelines, any such emissions are calculated by accounting for net carbon (C) fluxes from changes in biogenic C reservoirs in wooded or crop lands. For a more complete description of this methodological approach, see the *Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry* chapter (Chapter 7), which accounts for the contribution of any resulting CO₂ emissions to U.S. totals within the Land Use, Land-Use Change and Forestry sector's approach.

In 2012, total CO₂ emissions from the burning of woody biomass in the industrial, residential, commercial, and electricity generation sectors were approximately 194.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (194,003 Gg) (see Table 3-55 and Table 3-56). As the largest consumer of woody biomass, the industrial sector was responsible for 64.3 percent of the CO₂ emissions from this source. The residential sector was the second largest emitter, constituting 22.3 percent of the total, while the commercial and electricity generation sectors accounted for the remainder.

Table 3-55: CO₂ Emissions from Wood Consumption by End-Use Sector (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Industrial	135.3	136.3	125.7	110.6	119.5	122.9	124.7
Residential	59.8	44.3	48.5	51.6	45.4	46.4	43.3
Commercial	6.8	7.2	7.5	7.5	7.4	7.1	6.4
Electricity Generation	13.3	19.1	18.3	18.6	20.2	18.8	19.6
Total	215.2	206.9	199.9	188.2	192.5	195.2	194.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-56: CO₂ Emissions from Wood Consumption by End-Use Sector (Gg)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Industrial	135,348	136,269	125,663	110,610	119,537	122,865	124,663
Residential	59,808	44,340	48,465	51,558	45,371	46,402	43,309
Commercial	6,779	7,218	7,518	7,486	7,385	7,131	6,420
Electricity Generation	13,252	19,074	18,288	18,566	20,169	18,784	19,612
Total	215,186	206,901	199,932	188,220	192,462	195,182	194,003

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

The transportation sector is responsible for most of the ethanol consumption in the United States. Ethanol is currently produced primarily from corn grown in the Midwest, but it can be produced from a variety of biomass feedstocks. Most ethanol for transportation use is blended with gasoline to create a 90 percent gasoline, 10 percent by volume ethanol blend known as E-10 or gasohol.

In 2012, the United States consumed an estimated 1,063.8 trillion Btu of ethanol, and as a result, produced approximately 72.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (72,827 Gg) (see Table 3-57 and Table 3-58) of CO₂ emissions. Ethanol production and consumption has grown significantly since 1990 due to the favorable economics of blending ethanol into gasoline and federal policies that have encouraged use of renewable fuels.

Table 3-57: CO₂ Emissions from Ethanol Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Transportation	4.1	22.4	53.8	61.2	71.3	71.5	71.5
Industrial	0.1	0.5	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1
Commercial	+	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Total	4.2	22.9	54.7	62.3	72.6	72.9	72.8

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 3-58: CO₂ Emissions from Ethanol Consumption (Gg)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Transportation ^a	4,136	22,414	53,796	61,193	71,287	71,537	71,548
Industrial	56	468	797	885	1,134	1,146	1,083
Commercial	34	60	146	193	226	198	196
Total	4,227	22,943	54,739	62,272	72,647	72,881	72,827

^a See Annex 3.2, Table A-92 for additional information on transportation consumption of these fuels.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Woody biomass emissions were estimated by applying two EIA gross heat contents (Lindstrom 2006) to U.S. consumption data (EIA 2014) (see Table 3-59), provided in energy units for the industrial, residential, commercial, and electric generation sectors. One heat content (16.95 MMBtu/MT wood and wood waste) was applied to the industrial sector's consumption, while the other heat content (15.43 MMBtu/MT wood and wood waste) was applied to the consumption data for the other sectors. An EIA emission factor of 0.434 MT C/MT wood (Lindstrom 2006) was then applied to the resulting quantities of woody biomass to obtain CO₂ emission estimates. It was assumed that the woody biomass contains black liquor and other wood wastes, has a moisture content of 12 percent, and is converted into CO₂ with 100 percent efficiency. The emissions from ethanol consumption were calculated by applying an emission factor of 18.67 Tg C/QBtu (EPA 2010) to U.S. ethanol consumption estimates that were provided in energy units (EIA 2014) (see Table 3-60).

Table 3-59: Woody Biomass Consumption by Sector (Trillion Btu)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Industrial	1,441.9	1,451.7	1,338.7	1,178.4	1,273.5	1,308.9	1,328.1
Residential	580.0	430.0	470.0	500.0	440.0	450.0	420.0
Commercial	65.7	70.0	72.9	72.6	71.6	69.2	62.3
Electricity Generation	128.5	185.0	177.3	180.0	195.6	182.2	190.2
Total	2,216.2	2,136.7	2,059.0	1,931.0	1,980.7	2,010.2	2,000.5

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 3-60: Ethanol Consumption by Sector (Trillion Btu)

End-Use Sector	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Transportation	60.4	327.4	785.8	893.9	1,041.4	1,045.0	1,045.2
Industrial	0.8	6.8	11.6	12.9	16.6	16.7	15.8
Commercial	0.5	0.9	2.1	2.8	3.3	2.9	2.9
Total	61.7	335.1	799.6	909.7	1,061.2	1,064.6	1,063.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

It is assumed that the combustion efficiency for woody biomass is 100 percent, which is believed to be an overestimate of the efficiency of wood combustion processes in the United States. Decreasing the combustion efficiency would decrease emission estimates. Additionally, the heat content applied to the consumption of woody biomass in the residential, commercial, and electric power sectors is unlikely to be a completely accurate representation of the heat content for all the different types of woody biomass consumed within these sectors. Emission estimates from ethanol production are more certain than estimates from woody biomass consumption due to better activity data collection methods and uniform combustion techniques.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Wood and ethanol consumption values were revised relative to the previous Inventory for 2011 based on updated information from EIA's *Monthly Energy Review* (EIA 2014). These revisions of historical data for wood biomass consumption resulted in an average annual increase in emissions from wood biomass consumption of about 1.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.7 percent) from 1990 through 2011. Slight adjustments were made to ethanol consumption based on updated information from EIA (2014), which slightly increased estimates for ethanol consumed. As a result of adjustments to historical EIA data, average annual emissions from ethanol consumption increased by less than 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.1 percent) relative to the previous Inventory estimates.

This year woody biomass consumption data for the industrial, residential, commercial and electricity generation sectors were obtained from EIA's *Monthly Energy Review* (EIA 2013). In previous years, woody biomass consumption data for the electricity generation sector was estimated from EPA's Clean Air Market Acid Rain Program dataset (EPA 2013), however, EPA is currently investigating the discrepancy in the 2012 wood biomass estimates derived from EPA 2013. In the meantime for the final submission, the EPA reverted back to the EIA's wood consumption dataset where the discrepancy under investigation does not exist.

Planned Improvements

The availability of facility-level combustion emissions through EPA's GHGRP will be examined to help better characterize the industrial sector's energy consumption in the United States, and further classify business establishments according to industrial economic activity type. Most methodologies used in EPA's GHGRP are consistent with IPCC, though for EPA's GHGRP, facilities collect detailed information specific to their operations according to detailed measurement standards, which may differ with the more aggregated data collected for the Inventory to estimate total, national U.S. emissions. In addition, and unlike the reporting requirements for this chapter under the UNFCCC reporting guidelines, some facility-level fuel combustion emissions reported under the GHGRP may also include industrial process emissions.¹¹³ In line with UNFCCC reporting guidelines, fuel combustion emissions are included in this chapter, while process emissions are included in the Industrial Processes chapter of this report. In examining data from EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the CO₂ from biomass combustion category, particular attention will also be made to ensure time series consistency, as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP are not available for all inventory years as reported in this inventory. Additionally, analyses will focus on aligning reported facility-level fuel types and IPCC fuel types per the national energy statistics, ensuring CO₂ emissions from biomass are separated in the facility-level reported data, and maintaining consistency with national energy statistics provided by EIA. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹¹⁴

¹¹³ See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2006/sbsta/eng/09.pdf>>.

¹¹⁴ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

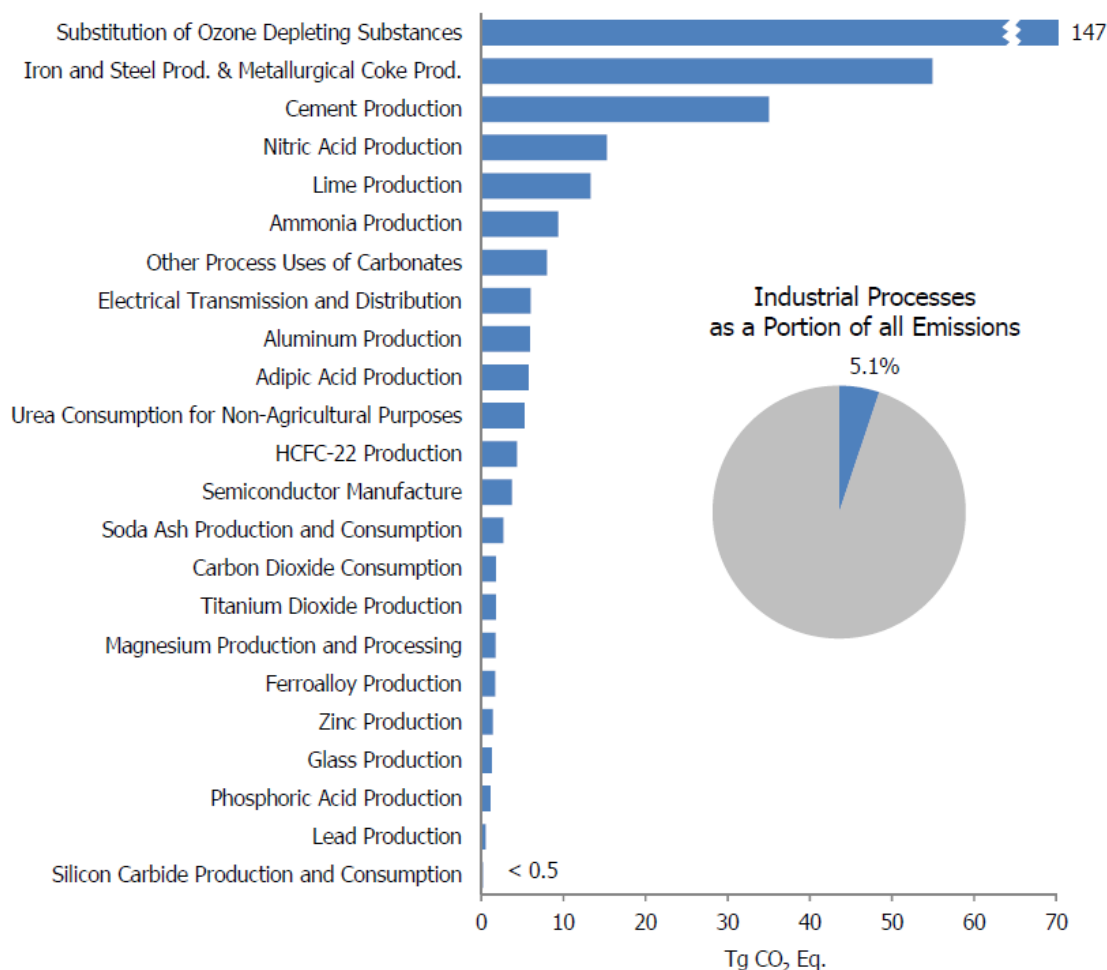
4. Industrial Processes

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as the by-products of various non-energy-related industrial activities. That is, these emissions are produced from an industrial process itself and are not directly a result of energy consumed during the process. For example, raw materials can be chemically transformed from one state to another. This transformation can result in the release of greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O). The processes addressed in this chapter include iron and steel production and metallurgical coke production, cement production, lime production, other process uses of carbonates (e.g., flux stone, flue gas desulfurization, and glass manufacturing), ammonia production and urea consumption, petrochemical production, aluminum production, soda ash production and use, titanium dioxide production, CO₂ consumption, ferroalloy production, glass production, zinc production, phosphoric acid production, lead production, silicon carbide production and consumption, nitric acid production, and adipic acid production (see Figure 4-1).

In addition to the three greenhouse gases listed above, there are also industrial sources of man-made fluorinated compounds called hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆). The present contribution of these gases to the radiative forcing effect of all anthropogenic greenhouse gases is small; however, because of their extremely long lifetimes, many of them will continue to accumulate in the atmosphere as long as emissions continue. In addition, many of these gases have high global warming potentials; SF₆ is the most potent greenhouse gas the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has evaluated. Usage of HFCs is growing rapidly since they are the primary substitutes for ozone depleting substances (ODSs), which are being phased-out under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. In addition to their use as ODS substitutes, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ are employed and emitted by a number of other industrial sources in the United States. These industries include aluminum production, HCFC-22 production, semiconductor manufacture, electric power transmission and distribution, and magnesium metal production and processing.

In 2012, industrial processes generated emissions of 334.4 teragrams of CO₂ equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.), or 5.1 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. Carbon dioxide emissions from all industrial processes were 144.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (144,585 Gg) in 2012, or 2.7 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions. Methane emissions from industrial processes resulted in emissions of approximately 3.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (177 Gg) in 2012, which was less than 1 percent of U.S. CH₄ emissions. N₂O emissions from adipic acid and nitric acid production were 21.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (68 Gg) in 2012, or 5.1 percent of total U.S. N₂O emissions. In 2012 combined emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ totaled 165.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. Total emissions from Industrial Processes in 2012 were 5.8 percent more than 1990 emissions.

Figure 4-1: 2012 Industrial Processes Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources



The increase in overall Industrial Processes emissions since 1990 reflects a range of emission trends among the industrial process emission sources. Emissions resulting from most types of metal production have declined significantly since 1990, largely due to production shifting to other countries, but also due to transitions to less-emissive methods of production (in the case of iron and steel) and to improved practices (in the case of PFC emissions from aluminum production). Emissions from mineral sources have either increased or not changed significantly since 1990 but largely track economic cycles, while CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from chemical sources have either decreased or not changed significantly. HFC emissions from the substitution of ozone depleting substances have increased drastically since 1990, while the emission trends of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ from other sources are mixed. Trends are explained further within each emission source category throughout the chapter.

Table 4-1 summarizes emissions for the Industrial Processes chapter in Tg CO₂ Eq., while unweighted native gas emissions in Gg are provided in Table 4-2. The source descriptions that follow in the chapter are presented in the order as reported to the UNFCCC in the common reporting format tables, corresponding generally to: mineral products, chemical production, metal production, and emissions from the uses of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆.

Table 4-1: Emissions from Industrial Processes (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	188.6	166.7	161.0	119.7	142.3	147.4	144.6
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99.8	66.7	66.8	43.0	55.7	60.0	54.3
<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	97.3	64.6	64.5	42.1	53.7	58.6	53.8
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	2.5	2.0	2.3	1.0	2.1	1.4	0.5
Cement Production	33.3	45.9	41.2	29.4	31.3	32.0	35.1
Lime Production	11.4	14.0	14.0	10.9	12.8	13.5	13.3
Ammonia Production	13.0	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.2	9.4	9.4
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	4.9	6.3	5.9	7.6	9.6	9.3	8.0
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.0	5.2
Petrochemical Production	3.4	4.3	3.6	2.8	3.5	3.5	3.5
Aluminum Production	6.8	4.1	4.5	3.0	2.7	3.3	3.4
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1.4	1.3	1.8	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.8
Titanium Dioxide Production	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7
Ferroalloy Production	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
Zinc Production	0.6	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.3	1.4
Glass Production	1.5	1.9	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.3	1.2
Phosphoric Acid Production	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1
Lead Production	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
CH₄	3.3	3.9	3.6	3.3	3.6	3.7	3.7
Petrochemical Production	2.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.1
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Ferroalloy Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	34.0	24.4	19.4	16.8	21.1	26.5	21.0
Nitric Acid Production	18.2	16.9	16.9	14.0	16.7	15.8	15.3
Adipic Acid Production	15.8	7.4	2.6	2.8	4.4	10.6	5.8
HFCs	36.9	119.8	136.0	135.1	144.0	148.6	151.2
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^a	0.3	103.8	122.2	129.6	137.5	141.5	146.8
HCFC-22 Production	36.4	15.8	13.6	5.4	6.4	6.9	4.3
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
PFCs	20.6	5.6	5.1	3.3	3.8	6.0	5.4
Semiconductor Manufacture	2.2	2.6	2.4	1.7	2.2	3.0	2.9
Aluminum Production	18.4	3.0	2.7	1.6	1.6	2.9	2.5
SF₆	32.6	14.7	10.7	9.6	9.8	10.8	8.4
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	26.7	11.0	8.4	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.0
Magnesium Production and Processing	5.4	2.9	1.9	1.7	2.2	2.9	1.7
Semiconductor Manufacture	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.7
Total	316.1	334.9	335.9	287.8	324.6	342.9	334.4

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

Table 4-2: Emissions from Industrial Processes (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	188,626	166,689	161,022	119,745	142,301	147,399	144,585
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	99,781	66,666	66,822	43,029	55,746	60,008	54,319
<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	97,311	64,623	64,488	42,073	53,662	58,583	53,778
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	2,470	2,043	2,334	956	2,084	1,425	541
Cement Production	33,278	45,910	41,161	29,432	31,256	32,010	35,051
Lime Production	11,420	13,990	13,992	10,914	12,834	13,471	13,318
Ammonia Production	13,047	9,196	8,414	8,454	9,188	9,428	9,366
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	4,907	6,339	5,885	7,583	9,560	9,335	7,997
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	3,784	3,653	4,065	3,427	4,728	3,999	5,243
Petrochemical Production	3,429	4,330	3,572	2,833	3,455	3,505	3,505
Aluminum Production	6,831	4,142	4,477	3,009	2,722	3,292	3,439
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	2,741	2,868	2,865	2,488	2,612	2,624	2,672
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	1,416	1,321	1,780	1,784	2,253	1,843	1,815
Titanium Dioxide Production	1,195	1,755	1,809	1,648	1,769	1,729	1,742
Ferroalloy Production	2,152	1,392	1,599	1,469	1,663	1,663	1,663
Zinc Production	632	1,030	1,159	943	1,182	1,286	1,422
Glass Production	1,535	1,928	1,523	1,045	1,481	1,299	1,247
Phosphoric Acid Production	1,586	1,396	1,177	1,016	1,130	1,199	1,101
Lead Production	516	553	547	525	542	538	527
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	375	219	175	145	181	170	158
CH₄	156	184	169	156	172	177	177
Petrochemical Production	108	150	137	138	146	148	147
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	46	34	31	17	25	28	29
<i>Iron and Steel Production</i>	46	34	31	17	25	28	29
<i>Metallurgical Coke Production</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Ferroalloy Production	1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	1	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O	110	79	63	54	68	85	68
Nitric Acid Production	59	55	54	45	54	51	49
Adipic Acid Production	51	24	8	9	14	34	19
HFCs	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances ^a	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
HCFC-22 Production	3	1	1	+	1	1	+
Semiconductor Manufacture	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
PFCs	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Semiconductor Manufacture	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Aluminum Production	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
SF₆	1	1	+	+	+	+	+
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Magnesium Production and Processing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Semiconductor Manufacture	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

M (Mixture of gases)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Small amounts of PFC emissions also result from this source.

The general methods employed to estimate emissions for industrial processes, as recommended by the IPCC, involve multiplying production data (or activity data) for each process by an emission factor per unit of production. It is noted that in this chapter the methodological guidance was primarily taken from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*. The use of the most recently published calculation methodologies by the IPCC, as contained in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*, is fully in line with the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* for methodological choice to improve rigor and accuracy. In addition, the improvements in using the latest methodological guidance from the IPCC have been recognized by the UNFCCC's Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice in the conclusions of its 30th Session.¹¹⁵ Furthermore, the United States hosted the July 2004 experts meeting for the development of the Industrial Processes & Product Use (IPPU) volume of the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*, and numerous U.S. experts participated in developing the methodological guidance that was published in that volume.¹¹⁶ In this regard, not only is it the most recent guidance from the IPCC, but the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* reflects the input of U.S. experts, which makes it that much more applicable to the inventory as explained in this chapter.

QA/QC and Verification Procedures

For industrial process sources of CO₂ and CH₄ emissions, a detailed plan was developed and implemented. This plan was based on the overall U.S. strategy, but was tailored to include specific procedures recommended for these sources. Two types of checks were performed using this plan: (1) general, or Tier 1, procedures that focus on annual procedures and checks to be used when gathering, maintaining, handling, documenting, checking, and archiving the data, supporting documents, and files, and (2) source-category specific, or Tier 2, procedures that focus on procedures and checks of the emission factors, activity data, and methodologies used for estimating emissions from the relevant industrial process sources. Examples of these procedures include checks to ensure that activity data and emission estimates are consistent with historical trends; that, where possible, consistent and reputable data sources are used across sources; that interpolation or extrapolation techniques are consistent across sources; and that common datasets and factors are used where applicable. Tier 1 quality assurance and quality control procedures have been performed for all industrial process sources. Tier 2 procedures were performed for more significant emission categories, consistent with IPCC good practice.

For most industrial process categories, activity data is obtained through a survey of manufacturers conducted by various organizations (specified within each source); the uncertainty of the activity data is a function of the reliability of plant-level production data and is influenced by the completeness of the survey response. The emission factors used are defaults from IPCC derived using calculations that assume precise and efficient chemical reactions, or were based upon empirical data in published references. As a result, uncertainties in the emission coefficients can be attributed to, among other things, inefficiencies in the chemical reactions associated with each production process or to the use of empirically-derived emission factors that are biased; therefore, they may not represent U.S. national averages. Additional assumptions are described within each source.

The uncertainty analysis performed to quantify uncertainties associated with the 2012 inventory estimates from industrial processes continues a multi-year process for developing credible quantitative uncertainty estimates for these source categories using the IPCC Tier 2 approach. As the process continues, the type and the characteristics of the actual probability density functions underlying the input variables are identified and better characterized (resulting in development of more reliable inputs for the model, including accurate characterization of correlation between variables), based primarily on expert judgment. Accordingly, the quantitative uncertainty estimates reported in this section should be considered illustrative and as iterations of ongoing efforts to produce accurate uncertainty estimates. The correlation among data used for estimating emissions for different sources can influence the uncertainty analysis of each individual source. While the uncertainty analysis recognizes very significant

¹¹⁵ These Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA) conclusions state, "The SBSTA acknowledged that the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* contain the most recent scientific methodologies available to estimate emissions by sources and removals by sinks of greenhouse gases (GHGs) not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, and recognized that Parties have gained experience with the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*. The SBSTA also acknowledged that the information contained in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* enables Parties to further improve the quality of their GHG inventories." See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2009/sbsta/eng/03.pdf>>.

¹¹⁶ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/Washington_Report.pdf>.

connections among sources, a more comprehensive approach that accounts for all linkages will be identified as the uncertainty analysis moves forward.

Box 4-1: Methodological Approach for Estimating and Reporting U.S. Emissions and Sinks

On October 30, 2009, the U.S. EPA published a rule for the mandatory reporting of greenhouse gases from large GHG emissions sources in the United States. Implementation of 40 CFR Part 98 is referred to as EPA's Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP). 40 CFR part 98 applies to direct greenhouse gas emitters, fossil fuel suppliers, industrial gas suppliers, and facilities that inject CO₂ underground for sequestration or other reasons and requires reporting by 41 industrial categories. Reporting is at the facility level, except for certain suppliers of fossil fuels and industrial greenhouse gases. In general, the threshold for reporting is 25,000 metric tons or more of CO₂ Eq. per year. Calendar year 2010 was the first year in which data were reported for many facilities subject to 40 CFR part 98.

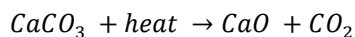
EPA's GHGRP dataset and the data presented in this inventory report are complementary and, as indicated in the respective planned improvements sections for source categories in this chapter, EPA is analyzing how to use facility-level GHGRP data to improve the national estimates presented in this inventory, giving particular consideration to ensuring time series consistency. Most methodologies used in EPA's GHGRP are consistent with IPCC, though for EPA's GHGRP, facilities collect detailed information specific to their operations according to detailed measurement standards. This may differ with the more aggregated data collected for the inventory to estimate total, national U.S. emissions. It should be noted that the definitions for source categories in the GHGRP may differ from those used in this inventory in meeting the UNFCCC reporting guidelines. In line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines, the inventory report is a comprehensive accounting of all emissions from source categories identified in the IPCC guidelines. Further information on the reporting categorizations in EPA's GHGRP and specific data caveats associated with monitoring methods in EPA's GHGRP has been provided on the EPA's GHGRP website.

EPA presents the data collected by EPA's GHGRP through a data publication tool that allows data to be viewed in several formats including maps, tables, charts and graphs for individual facilities or groups of facilities.

4.1 Cement Production (IPCC Source Category 2A1)

Cement production is an energy- and raw material-intensive process that results in the generation of CO₂ from both the energy consumed in making the cement and the chemical process itself. Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of cement are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

During the cement production process, calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) is heated in a cement kiln at a temperature of about 1,450°C (2,400°F) to form lime (i.e., calcium oxide or CaO) and CO₂ in a process known as calcination or calcining. The quantity of CO₂ emitted during cement production is directly proportional to the lime content of the clinker. During calcination, each mole of limestone (CaCO₃) heated in the clinker kiln forms one mole of lime (CaO) and one mole of CO₂:



Next, the lime is combined with silica-containing materials to produce clinker (an intermediate product), with the earlier byproduct CO₂ being released to the atmosphere. The clinker is then allowed to cool, mixed with a small amount of gypsum and potentially other materials (e.g., slag), and used to make Portland cement.¹¹⁷

CO₂ emitted from the chemical process of cement production is the second largest source of industrial CO₂ emissions in the United States. Cement is produced in 35 states and Puerto Rico. Texas, Missouri, California, Michigan, and Florida were the five leading cement-producing States in 2012 and accounted for approximately half of U.S. production (USGS 2013). Clinker production in 2012 increased approximately 10 percent from 2011 levels. This increase can be attributed to an increase in spending in new residential construction and nonresidential buildings. In 2012, all U.S. cement plants operated at levels well below capacity output. Nationwide, two cement plants were formally closed in 2012. Of these plants, one was idle in 2011 whereas the other one was operational in 2011 (USGS 2013). In 2012, U.S. clinker production totaled 67,784 thousand metric tons (Van Oss 2013b). The resulting CO₂ emissions were estimated to be 35.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (35,051 Gg) (see Table 4-3).

Table 4-3: CO₂ Emissions from Cement Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	33.3	33,278
2005	45.9	45,910
2008	41.2	41,161
2009	29.4	29,432
2010	31.3	31,256
2011	32.0	32,010
2012	35.1	35,051

Greenhouse gas emissions from cement production increased every year from 1991 through 2006 (with the exception of a slight decrease in 1997), but decreased in the following years until 2009. Emissions from cement production were at their lowest levels in 2009 (2009 emissions are approximately 29 percent lower than 2008 emissions and 12 percent lower than 1990). Since 2010, emissions have increased slightly.

Emissions since 1990 have increased by five percent. Emissions decreased significantly between 2008 and 2009, due to the economic recession and associated decrease in demand for construction materials. Emissions increased slightly from 2009 levels in 2010, and increased slightly again in 2011 and in 2012 due to increasing consumption. Cement continues to be a critical component of the construction industry; therefore, the availability of public and private construction funding, as well as overall economic conditions, have considerable influence on cement production.

Methodology

CO₂ emissions were estimated using the Tier 2 methodology from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*. The Tier 2 methodology was used because detailed and complete data (including weights and composition) for carbonate(s) consumed in clinker production are not available, and thus a rigorous Tier 3 approach is impractical. Tier 2 specifies the use of aggregated plant or national clinker production data and an emission factor, which is the product of the average lime fraction for clinker of 65 percent and a constant reflecting the mass of CO₂ released per unit of lime (van Oss 2013a). This calculation yields an emission factor of 0.51 tons of CO₂ per ton of clinker produced, which was determined as follows:

¹¹⁷ Approximately three percent of total clinker production is used to produce masonry cement, which is produced using plasticizers (e.g., ground limestone, lime) and Portland cement (USGS 2011). Carbon dioxide emissions that result from the production of lime used to create masonry cement are included in the Lime Manufacture source category.

$$EF_{\text{Clinker}} = 0.6460 \text{ CaO} \times \left[\frac{44.01 \text{ g/mole CO}_2}{56.08 \text{ g/mole CaO}} \right] = 0.5070 \text{ tons CO}_2/\text{ton clinker}$$

During clinker production, some of the clinker precursor materials remain in the kiln as non-calcinated, partially calcinated, or fully calcinated cement kiln dust (CKD). The emissions attributable to the calcinated portion of the CKD are not accounted for by the clinker emission factor. The IPCC recommends that these additional CKD CO₂ emissions should be estimated as two percent of the CO₂ emissions calculated from clinker production (when data on CKD generation are not available).¹¹⁸ Total cement production emissions were calculated by adding the emissions from clinker production to the emissions assigned to CKD (IPCC 2006).

Furthermore, small amounts of impurities (i.e., not calcium carbonate) may exist in the raw limestone used to produce clinker. The proportion of these impurities is generally minimal, although a small amount (one to two percent) of magnesium oxide (MgO) may be desirable as a flux. Per the IPCC Tier 2 methodology, a correction for magnesium oxide is not used, since the amount of magnesium oxide from carbonate is likely very small and the assumption of a 100 percent carbonate source of CaO already yields an overestimation of emissions (IPCC 2006). The 1990 through 2012 activity data for clinker production (see Table 4-4) were obtained from USGS (Van Oss 2013b). The data were compiled by USGS (to the nearest ton) through questionnaires sent to domestic clinker and cement manufacturing plants, including the facilities in Puerto Rico.

Table 4-4: Clinker Production (Gg)

Year	Clinker
1990	64,355
2005	88,783
2008	79,599
2009	56,918
2010	60,444
2011	61,903
2012	67,784

Note: Clinker production from 1990-2012 includes Puerto Rico. Data were obtained from USGS (Van Oss 2013b), whose original data source was USGS and US Bureau of Mines Minerals Yearbooks (2012 data obtained from mineral industry surveys for cement in July 2013).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainties contained in these estimates are primarily due to uncertainties in the lime content of clinker and in the percentage of CKD recycled inside the cement kiln. Uncertainty is also associated with the assumption that all calcium-containing raw materials are CaCO₃, when a small percentage likely consists of other carbonate and non-carbonate raw materials. The lime content of clinker varies from 60 to 67 percent; 65 percent is used as a representative value (van Oss 2013a). CKD loss can range from 1.5 to 8 percent depending upon plant specifications. Additionally, some amount of CO₂ is reabsorbed when the cement is used for construction. As cement reacts with water, alkaline substances such as calcium hydroxide are formed. During this curing process, these compounds may react with CO₂ in the atmosphere to create calcium carbonate. This reaction only occurs in roughly the outer 0.2 inches of surface area. Because the amount of CO₂ reabsorbed is thought to be minimal, it was not estimated.

¹¹⁸ Default IPCC clinker and CKD emission factors were verified through expert consultation with USGS (Van Oss 2013a).

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-5. Based on the uncertainties associated with total U.S. clinker production, the CO₂ emission factor for clinker production, and the emission factor for additional CO₂ emissions from CKD, 2012 CO₂ emissions from cement production were estimated to be between 33.0 and 37.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This confidence level indicates a range of approximately 5.8 percent below and 6.1 percent above the emission estimate of 35.1 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-5: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Cement Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Cement Production	CO ₂	35.1	33.0	37.2	-5.8%	+6.1%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Clinker production data for 1990 through 2012 were obtained from USGS (Van Oss 2013b) including Puerto Rico for all years. These data contained updated clinker production data from USGS for more recent years. The emissions estimates for the time series, 1990 through 2012 reflect use of the updated USGS data. In a given Inventory year, advance clinker data is typically used. These data are typically finalized several years later by USGS. The published time series was reviewed to ensure time series consistency. Published data generally differed from advance data by approximately 1,000 metric tons, or 1 percent of the total. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

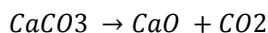
Future improvements involve evaluating and analyzing data reported under EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Cement Production source category. Particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹¹⁹

4.2 Lime Production (IPCC Source Category 2A2)

Lime is an important manufactured product with many industrial, chemical, and environmental applications. Lime production involves three main processes: stone preparation, calcination, and hydration. Carbon dioxide is generated during the calcination stage, when limestone—mostly calcium carbonate (CaCO₃)—is roasted at high

¹¹⁹ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>

temperatures in a kiln to produce CaO and CO₂. The CO₂ is given off as a gas and is normally emitted to the atmosphere.



Some of the CO₂ generated during the production process, however, is recovered at some facilities for use in sugar refining and precipitated calcium carbonate (PCC) production.¹²⁰ Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of lime are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

For U.S. operations, the term “lime” actually refers to a variety of chemical compounds. These include calcium oxide (CaO), or high-calcium quicklime; calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂), or hydrated lime; dolomitic quicklime ([CaO•MgO]); and dolomitic hydrate ([Ca(OH)₂•MgO] or [Ca(OH)₂•Mg(OH)₂]).

The contemporary lime market is approximately distributed across five end-use categories as follows: metallurgical uses, 38 percent; environmental uses, 31 percent; chemical and industrial uses, 22 percent; construction uses, 8 percent; and refractory dolomite, 1 percent. The major uses are in steel making, flue gas desulfurization systems at coal-fired electric power plants, construction, and water purification. Lime is also used as a CO₂ scrubber, and there has been experimentation on the use of lime to capture CO₂ from electric power plants.

Lime production in the United States—including Puerto Rico— was reported to be 18,767 thousand metric tons in 2012 (USGS 2013). Principal lime producing states are Alabama, Kentucky, Missouri, Nevada, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Texas.

U.S. lime production resulted in estimated net CO₂ emissions of 13.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (13,318 Gg) (see Table 4-6 and Table 4-7). The trends in CO₂ emissions from lime production are directly proportional to trends in production, which are described below.

Table 4-6: CO₂ Emissions from Lime Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	11.4	11,420
2005	14.0	13,990
2008	14.0	13,992
2009	10.9	10,914
2010	12.8	12,834
2011	13.5	13,471
2012	13.3	13,318

Table 4-7: Potential, Recovered, and Net CO₂ Emissions from Lime Production (Gg)

Year	Potential	Recovered ^a	Net Emissions
1990	11,959	539	11,420
2005	15,074	1,084	13,990
2008	14,981	988	13,992
2009	11,872	957	10,914
2010	13,776	942	12,834

¹²⁰ PCC is obtained from the reaction of CO₂ with calcium hydroxide. It is used as a filler and/or coating in the paper, food, and plastic industries.

2011	14,389	917	13,471
2012	14,188	870	13,318

^a For sugar refining and PCC production.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

In 2012, lime production was nearly the same as 2011 levels (decrease of 1 percent) at 18,767 thousand metric tons. Lime production in 2010 rebounded from a 21 percent decline in 2009 to 18,219 thousand metric tons, which is still 8 percent below 2008 levels. Lime production declined in 2009 mostly due to the economic recession and the associated significant downturn in major markets such as construction and steel. The surprising rebound in 2010 is primarily due to increased consumption in steelmaking, chemical and industrial uses, and in flue gas desulfurization. Also, there was a decrease in 2012 lime consumption for Precipitated Calcium Carbonate (PCC) production, due to decreased consumption from paper mills caused by closure of paper mills from economic recession and shifting of production overseas (Miller 2013).

Methodology

To calculate emissions, the amounts of high-calcium and dolomitic lime produced were multiplied by their respective emission factors using the Tier 2 approach from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC 2006). The emission factor is the product of the stoichiometric ratio between CO₂ and CaO, and the average CaO and MgO content for lime. The CaO and MgO content for lime is assumed to be 95 percent for both high-calcium and dolomitic lime (IPCC 2006). The emission factors were calculated as follows:

For high-calcium lime:

$$[(44.01 \text{ g/mole CO}_2) \div (56.08 \text{ g/mole CaO})] \times (0.9500 \text{ CaO/lime}) = 0.7455 \text{ g CO}_2/\text{g lime}$$

For dolomitic lime:

$$[(88.02 \text{ g/mole CO}_2) \div (96.39 \text{ g/mole CaO})] \times (0.9500 \text{ CaO/lime}) = 0.8675 \text{ g CO}_2/\text{g lime}$$

Production was adjusted to remove the mass of chemically combined water found in hydrated lime, determined according to the molecular weight ratios of H₂O to (Ca(OH)₂ and [Ca(OH)₂•Mg(OH)₂]) (IPCC 2000). These factors set the chemically combined water content to 24.3 percent for high-calcium hydrated lime, and 27.2 percent for dolomitic hydrated lime.

Lime kiln dust (LKD) is a byproduct of the lime manufacturing process. LKD is a very fine-grained material and is especially useful for applications requiring very small particle size. Most common LKD applications include soil reclamation and agriculture. Currently, data on annual LKD production is not readily available. Lime emission estimates were multiplied by a factor of 1.02 to account for lime kiln dust (LKD) (IPCC 2006).

Lime emission estimates were further adjusted to account for PCC producers and sugar refineries that recover CO₂ emitted by lime production facilities for use as an input into production or refining processes. For CO₂ recovery by sugar refineries, lime consumption estimates (USGS 2013) were multiplied by a CO₂ recovery factor to determine the total amount of CO₂ recovered from lime production facilities. According to industry outreach by state agencies and USGS, sugar refineries use captured CO₂ for 100 percent of their CO₂ input (Lutter 2009, Miller 2013). Carbon dioxide recovery by PCC producers was determined by multiplying lime consumption for PCC production (USGS 1992 through 2013) with the percentage CO₂ of production weight for PCC production at lime plants (i.e., CO₂/CaCO₃ = 44/100) and a CO₂ recovery factor based on the amount of purchased CO₂ by PCC manufacturers (Prillaman 2008 through 2012, Miller 2013). As data were only available starting in 2007, CO₂ recovery for the period 1990 through 2006 was extrapolated by determining a ratio of PCC production at lime facilities to lime consumption for PCC (USGS 1992 through 2008).

Lime production data (high-calcium- and dolomitic-quicklime, high-calcium- and dolomitic-hydrated, and dead-burned dolomite) for 1990 through 2012 (see Table 4-8) were obtained from USGS (1992 through 2013) and are compiled by USGS to the nearest ton. Natural hydraulic lime, which is produced from CaO and hydraulic calcium silicates, is not produced in the United States (USGS 2011). Total lime production was adjusted to account for the water content of hydrated lime by converting hydrate to oxide equivalent based on recommendations from the IPCC, and is presented in Table 4-9 (IPCC 2000). The CaO and CaO•MgO contents of lime were obtained from the IPCC (IPCC 2006). Since data for the individual lime types (high calcium and dolomitic) was not provided prior to 1997,

total lime production for 1990 through 1996 was calculated according to the three year distribution from 1997 to 1999.

Table 4-8: High-Calcium- and Dolomitic-Quicklime, High-Calcium- and Dolomitic-Hydrated, and Dead-Burned-Dolomite Lime Production (Gg)

Year	High-Calcium Quicklime	Dolomitic Quicklime	High-Calcium Hydrated	Dolomitic Hydrated	Dead-Burned Dolomite
1990	11,166	2,234	1,781	319	342
2005	14,100	2,990	2,220	474	200
2008	14,600	2,630	2,070	358	200
2009	11,800	1,830	1,690	261	200
2010	13,300	2,570	1,910	239	200
2011	13,900	2,690	2,010	230	200
2012	13,600	2,710	2,020	237	200

Table 4-9: Adjusted Lime Production (Gg)

Year	High-Calcium	Dolomitic
1990	12,466	2,800
2005	15,721	3,522
2008	16,111	3,081
2009	13,034	2,213
2010	14,694	2,937
2011	15,367	3,051
2012	15,075	3,076

Note: Minus water content of hydrated lime

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainties contained in these estimates can be attributed to slight differences in the chemical composition of lime products and recovery rates for sugar refineries and PCC manufacturers located at lime plants. Although the methodology accounts for various formulations of lime, it does not account for the trace impurities found in lime, such as iron oxide, alumina, and silica. Due to differences in the limestone used as a raw material, a rigid specification of lime material is impossible. As a result, few plants produce lime with exactly the same properties.

In addition, a portion of the CO₂ emitted during lime production will actually be reabsorbed when the lime is consumed, especially at captive lime production facilities. As noted above, lime has many different chemical, industrial, environmental, and construction applications. In many processes, CO₂ reacts with the lime to create calcium carbonate (e.g., water softening). Carbon dioxide reabsorption rates vary, however, depending on the application. For example, 100 percent of the lime used to produce precipitated calcium carbonate reacts with CO₂; whereas most of the lime used in steel making reacts with impurities such as silica, sulfur, and aluminum compounds. Quantifying the amount of CO₂ that is reabsorbed would require a detailed accounting of lime use in the United States and additional information about the associated processes where both the lime and byproduct CO₂

are “reused” are required to quantify the amount of CO₂ that is reabsorbed. Research conducted thus far has not yielded the necessary information to quantify CO₂ reabsorption rates.¹²¹

In some cases, lime is generated from calcium carbonate byproducts at pulp mills and water treatment plants.¹²² The lime generated by these processes is included in the USGS data for commercial lime consumption. In the pulping industry, mostly using the Kraft (sulfate) pulping process, lime is consumed in order to causticize a process liquor (green liquor) composed of sodium carbonate and sodium sulfide. The green liquor results from the dilution of the smelt created by combustion of the black liquor where biogenic C is present from the wood. Kraft mills recover the calcium carbonate “mud” after the causticizing operation and calcine it back into lime—thereby generating CO₂—for reuse in the pulping process. Although this re-generation of lime could be considered a lime manufacturing process, the CO₂ emitted during this process is mostly biogenic in origin, and therefore is not included in the industrial processes totals (Miner and Upton 2002). In accordance with IPCC methodological guidelines, any such emissions are calculated by accounting for net carbon (C) fluxes from changes in biogenic C reservoirs in wooded or crop lands (see the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter).

In the case of water treatment plants, lime is used in the softening process. Some large water treatment plants may recover their waste calcium carbonate and calcine it into quicklime for reuse in the softening process. Further research is necessary to determine the degree to which lime recycling is practiced by water treatment plants in the United States.

Uncertainties also remain surrounding recovery rates used for sugar refining and PCC production. The recovery rate for sugar refineries is based on consultation with USGS commodity expert (Miller 2013) and two sugar beet processing and refining facilities located in California that use 100 percent recovered CO₂ from lime plants (Lutter 2009). This analysis assumes that all sugar refineries located on-site at lime plants also use 100 percent recovered CO₂. The recovery rate for PCC producers located on-site at lime plants is based on the 2012 value for PCC manufactured at commercial lime plants, given by USGS (Miller 2012). However, most PCC production occurs at non-commercial lime facilities, such as paper mills. Satellite PCC plants at paper mills tend to use CO₂ produced from the paper mill (potentially biomass based). This could introduce additional uncertainty in the CO₂ estimates, because CO₂ recovered from pulp and paper facilities is mostly biogenic in origin.

Another uncertainty is the assumption that calcination emissions for LKD are around 2 percent. The National Lime association has commented that the estimates of emissions from LKD in the US could be closer to 6 percent. In addition, they note emissions may also be generated through production of other byproducts/wastes at lime plants (Seeger 2013). There is limited data publicly available on LKD generation rates and also quantities, types of other byproducts/wastes produced at lime facilities. Further research is needed to improve understanding of additional calcination emissions to consider revising the current assumptions based on the IPCC Guidelines

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-10. Lime CO₂ emissions for 2012 were estimated to be between 13.0 and 13.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This confidence level indicates a range of approximately 2.7 percent below and 2.7 percent above the emission estimate of 13.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.

¹²¹ Representatives of the National Lime Association estimate that CO₂ reabsorption that occurs from the use of lime may offset as much as a quarter of the CO₂ emissions from calcination (Males 2003).

¹²² Some carbide producers may also regenerate lime from their calcium hydroxide byproducts, which does not result in emissions of CO₂. In making calcium carbide, quicklime is mixed with coke and heated in electric furnaces. The regeneration of lime in this process is done using a waste calcium hydroxide (hydrated lime) [CaC₂ + 2H₂O → C₂H₂ + Ca(OH)₂], not calcium carbonate [CaCO₃]. Thus, the calcium hydroxide is heated in the kiln to simply expel the water [Ca(OH)₂ + heat → CaO + H₂O] and no CO₂ is released.

Table 4-10: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Lime Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent) in 2012.

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Lime Production	CO ₂	13.3	13.0	13.7	-2.7%	+2.7%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Production data for dead-burned dolomite for 2007 through 2011 were updated based on the 2012 Lime Minerals Yearbook, which caused the CO₂ production from lime to change for all years from 2007 through 2011 relative to the previous Inventory.

CO₂ recovery emissions from PCC production were revised for the entire time series (1990 through 2012). In prior versions of the Inventory, PCC production at commercial lime plants was used only to calculate CO₂ recovery emissions. According to USGS and NLA (Miller 2013 and Seeger 2013), a majority of PCC production (approximately 70 percent or more) occurs at facilities other than commercial lime facilities. A methodology change was incorporated to calculate emissions from all PCC production rather than PCC production at commercial lime facilities, only. This change caused an increase in CO₂ recovery emissions from PCC production (by approximately 250 percent).

Planned Improvements

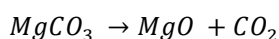
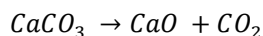
Future improvements involve conducting research to improve current assumptions associated with emissions from production of LKD and other byproducts/wastes as discussed in the Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency section.

In addition, EPA is evaluating and analyzing data reported under EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Lime Production source category. Pending resources, a potential improvement to the inventory estimates for this source category would include the derivation of an average CO₂ recovery rate based on the average of aggregated data reported by facilities under EPA's GHGRP regarding onsite use of CO₂. Particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this Inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national Inventories will be relied upon.¹²³

¹²³ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

4.3 Other Process Uses of Carbonates (IPCC Source Category 2A3)

Limestone (CaCO_3), dolomite ($\text{CaCO}_3\text{MgCO}_3$)¹²⁴, and other carbonates such as magnesium carbonate and iron carbonate are basic materials used by a wide variety of industries, including construction, agriculture, chemical, metallurgy, glass production, and environmental pollution control. This section addresses only limestone and dolomite use. For industrial applications, carbonates such as limestone and dolomite are heated sufficiently enough to calcine the material and generate CO_2 as a byproduct.



Examples of such applications include limestone used as a flux or purifier in metallurgical furnaces, as a sorbent in flue gas desulfurization (FGD) systems for utility and industrial plants, and as a raw material for the production of glass, lime, and cement. Emissions from limestone and dolomite used in other process sectors such as cement, lime, glass production, and iron and steel, are excluded from this section and reported under their respective source categories (e.g., glass manufacturing IPCC Source Category 2A7.) Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during these processes are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

Limestone is widely distributed throughout the world in deposits of varying sizes and degrees of purity. Large deposits of limestone occur in nearly every state in the United States, and significant quantities are extracted for industrial applications. The leading limestone producing States are Texas, Missouri, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and Ohio (USGS 2013c). Similarly, dolomite deposits are also widespread throughout the world. Dolomite deposits are found in the United States, Canada, Mexico, Europe, Africa, and Brazil. In the United States, the leading dolomite producing states are Illinois, Pennsylvania, New York, Michigan, and Indiana (USGS 2013c).

In 2012, 18,844 thousand metric tons of limestone and 559 thousand metric tons of dolomite were consumed for these emissive applications, excluding glass manufacturing (Willett 2013). Usage of limestone and dolomite resulted in aggregate CO_2 emissions of 8.0 Tg CO_2 Eq. (7,997Gg) (see Table 4-11 and Table 4-12). Overall, emissions have increased 63 percent from 1990 through 2012.

Table 4-11: CO_2 Emissions from Other Process Uses of Carbonates (Tg CO_2 Eq.)

Year	Flux Stone	FGD	Magnesium Production	Other Miscellaneous Uses	Total
1990	2.6	1.4	0.1	0.8	4.9
2005	2.6	3.0	+	0.7	6.3
2008	1.0	3.8	+	1.1	5.9
2009	1.8	5.4	+	0.4	7.6
2010	1.6	7.1	+	0.9	9.6
2011	1.5	5.4	+	2.4	9.3
2012	1.1	5.8	+	1.1	8.0

Notes: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. "Other miscellaneous uses" include chemical stone, mine dusting or acid water treatment, acid neutralization, and sugar refining.

+ Emissions are less than 0.1 Tg CO_2 Eq.

Table 4-12: CO_2 Emissions from Other Process Uses of Carbonates (Gg)

¹²⁴ Limestone and dolomite are collectively referred to as limestone by the industry, and intermediate varieties are seldom distinguished.

Year	Flux Stone	FGD	Magnesium Production	Other Miscellaneous Uses	Total
1990	2,592	1,432	64	819	4,907
2005	2,649	2,973	+	718	6,339
2008	974	3,799	+	1,113	5,885
2009	1,784	5,403	+	396	7,583
2010	1,560	7,064	+	937	9,560
2011	1,467	5,420	+	2,449	9,335
2012	1,072	5,779	+	1,145	7,997

+ Emissions are less than 0.1 Gg CO₂ Eq.

Methodology

CO₂ emissions were calculated based on the IPCC 2006 Guidelines Tier 2 method by multiplying the quantity of limestone or dolomite consumed by the emission factor for limestone or dolomite calcination, respectively, Table 2.1 – limestone: 0.43971 tonne CO₂/tonne carbonate, and dolomite: 0.47732 tonne CO₂/tonne carbonate.¹²⁵ This methodology was used for flux stone, flue gas desulfurization systems, chemical stone, mine dusting or acid water treatment, acid neutralization, and sugar refining. Flux stone used during the production of iron and steel was deducted from the Other Process Uses of Carbonates estimate and attributed to the Iron and Steel Production estimate. Similarly limestone and dolomite consumption for glass manufacturing, cement, and lime manufacturing are excluded from this category and attributed to their respective categories.

Historically, the production of magnesium metal was the only other significant use of limestone and dolomite that produced CO₂ emissions. At the end of 2001, the sole magnesium production plant operating in the United States that produced magnesium metal using a dolomitic process that resulted in the release of CO₂ emissions ceased its operations (USGS 1995 through 2012b; USGS 2013).

Consumption data for 1990 through 2012 of limestone and dolomite used for flux stone, flue gas desulfurization systems, chemical stone, mine dusting or acid water treatment, acid neutralization, and sugar refining (see Table 4-13) were obtained from the USGS *Minerals Yearbook: Crushed Stone Annual Report* (1995 through 2012a), preliminary data from USGS Crushed Stone Commodity Expert (Willett, 2013), and the U.S. Bureau of Mines (1991 and 1993a), which are reported to the nearest ton. The production capacity data for 1990 through 2012 of dolomitic magnesium metal also came from the USGS (1995 through 2012b, USGS 2013) and the U.S. Bureau of Mines (1990 through 1993b). During 1990 and 1992, the USGS did not conduct a detailed survey of limestone and dolomite consumption by end-use. Consumption for 1990 was estimated by applying the 1991 percentages of total limestone and dolomite use constituted by the individual limestone and dolomite uses to 1990 total use. Similarly, the 1992 consumption figures were approximated by applying an average of the 1991 and 1993 percentages of total limestone and dolomite use constituted by the individual limestone and dolomite uses to the 1992 total.

Additionally, each year the USGS withholds data on certain limestone and dolomite end-uses due to confidentiality agreements regarding company proprietary data. For the purposes of this analysis, emissive end-uses that contained withheld data were estimated using one of the following techniques: (1) the value for all the withheld data points for limestone or dolomite use was distributed evenly to all withheld end-uses; (2) the average percent of total limestone or dolomite for the withheld end-use in the preceding and succeeding years; or (3) the average fraction of total limestone or dolomite for the end-use over the entire time period.

There is a large quantity of crushed stone reported to the USGS under the category “unspecified uses.” A portion of this consumption is believed to be limestone or dolomite used for emissive end uses. The quantity listed for “unspecified uses” was, therefore, allocated to each reported end-use according to each end-use’s fraction of total consumption in that year.¹²⁶

¹²⁵ IPCC 2006, Volume 3: Chapter 2

¹²⁶ This approach was recommended by USGS, the data collection agency.

Table 4-13: Limestone and Dolomite Consumption (Thousand Metric Tons)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Flux Stone	6,737	7,022	3,253	4,623	4,440	4,396	3,656
Limestone	5,804	3,165	1,970	1,631	1,921	2,531	3,097
Dolomite	933	3,857	1,282	2,992	2,520	1,865	559
FGD	3,258	6,761	8,639	12,288	16,064	12,326	13,143
Other Miscellaneous Uses	1,835	1,632	2,531	898	2,121	5,548	2,604
Total	11,830	15,415	14,423	17,809	22,626	22,270	19,404

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainty levels presented in this section account for uncertainty associated with activity data. Data on limestone and dolomite consumption are collected by USGS through voluntary national surveys. USGS contacts the mines (i.e., producers of various types of crushed stone) for annual sales data. Data on other carbonate consumption are not readily available. The producers report the annual quantity sold to various end-users/industry types. USGS estimates the historical response rate for the crushed stone survey to be approximately 70 percent, the rest is estimated by USGS. Large fluctuations in reported consumption exist, reflecting year-to-year changes in the number of survey responders. The uncertainty resulting from a shifting survey population is exacerbated by the gaps in the time series of reports. The accuracy of distribution by end use is also uncertain because this value is reported by the producer/mines and not the end user. Additionally, there is significant inherent uncertainty associated with estimating withheld data points for specific end uses of limestone and dolomite. Lastly, much of the limestone consumed in the United States is reported as “other unspecified uses;” therefore, it is difficult to accurately allocate this unspecified quantity to the correct end-uses.

Uncertainty in the estimates also arises in part due to variations in the chemical composition of limestone. In addition to calcium carbonate, limestone may contain smaller amounts of magnesia, silica, and sulfur, among other minerals. The exact specifications for limestone or dolomite used as flux stone vary with the pyrometallurgical process and the kind of ore processed.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-14. Other Process Uses of Carbonates CO₂ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 6.8 and 9.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 15 percent below and 20 percent above the emission estimate of 8.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-14: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Other Process Uses of Carbonates (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	CO ₂	8.0	6.8	9.7	-15%	+20%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Other Process Uses of Carbonates consumption data for 2011 were revised to reflect updated USGS data. This change resulted in a 2 percent increase of CO₂ emissions. In a given inventory year, USGS publishes advance consumption data and data is typically finalized the following year with final quality assurance, or any late survey responses. The data typically do not change significantly from the advance release. The published time series was reviewed to ensure time series consistency. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

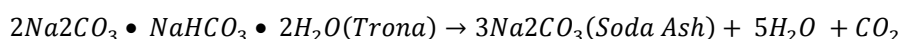
Planned Improvements

Future improvements involve evaluating and analyzing data reported under EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Other Process Uses of Carbonates source category. Particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹²⁷

4.4 Soda Ash Production and Consumption (IPCC Source Category 2A4)

Carbon dioxide is generated as a byproduct of calcining trona ore to produce soda ash, and is eventually emitted into the atmosphere. In addition, CO₂ may also be released when soda ash is consumed. Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production and consumption of soda ash are accounted for in the Energy sector.

Calcining involves placing crushed trona ore into a kiln to convert sodium bicarbonate into crude sodium carbonate that will later be filtered into pure soda ash. The emission of CO₂ during trona-based production is based on the following reaction:



Soda ash (sodium carbonate, Na₂CO₃) is a white crystalline solid that is readily soluble in water and strongly alkaline. Commercial soda ash is used as a raw material in a variety of industrial processes and in many familiar consumer products such as glass, soap and detergents, paper, textiles, and food. (Emissions from soda ash used in glass production are reported under IPCC Source Category 2A7. Glass production is its own sub-category and historical soda ash consumption figures have been adjusted to reflect this change.) After glass manufacturing, soda ash is used primarily to manufacture many sodium-base inorganic chemicals, including sodium bicarbonate, sodium chromates, sodium phosphates, and sodium silicates (USGS 2012). Internationally, two types of soda ash are produced, natural and synthetic. The United States produces only natural soda ash and is second only to China in total soda ash production. Trona is the principal ore from which natural soda ash is made.

The United States represents about one-fourth of total world soda ash output. Only two states produce natural soda ash: Wyoming and California. Of these two states, only net emissions of CO₂ from Wyoming were calculated due to specifics regarding the production processes employed in the state.¹²⁸ Based on final 2012 reported data, the

¹²⁷ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

¹²⁸ In California, soda ash is manufactured using sodium carbonate-bearing brines instead of trona ore. To extract the sodium carbonate, the complex brines are first treated with CO₂ in carbonation towers to convert the sodium carbonate into sodium

estimated distribution of soda ash by end-use in 2012 (excluding glass production) was chemical production, 56 percent; soap and detergent manufacturing, 15 percent; distributors, 11 percent; flue gas desulfurization, 6 percent; other uses, 7 percent; pulp and paper production, 3 percent; and water treatment, 2 percent (USGS 2013).

U.S. natural soda ash is competitive in world markets because the majority of the world output of soda ash is made synthetically. Although the United States continues to be a major supplier of world soda ash, China, which surpassed the United States in soda ash production in 2003, is the world's leading producer. Despite this competition, U.S. soda ash exports are expected to increase, causing domestic production to increase slightly (USGS 2012).

In 2012, CO₂ emissions from the production of soda ash from trona were approximately 1.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,582 Gg). Soda ash consumption in the United States generated 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,090 Gg) in 2012. Total emissions from soda ash production and consumption in 2012 were 2.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2,672 Gg) (see Table 4-15 and Table 4-16).

Total emissions in 2012 increased by approximately 1.8 percent from emissions in 2011, and have decreased overall by approximately 2.5 percent since 1990.

Emissions have remained relatively constant over the time series with some fluctuations since 1990. In general, these fluctuations were related to the behavior of the export market and the U.S. economy. The U.S. soda ash industry continued a trend of increased production and value in 2012 since experiencing a decline in domestic and export sales caused by adverse global economic conditions in 2009. The annual average unit value of soda ash set a record high in 2012, and soda ash exports increased as well, accounting for 55 percent of total production (USGS 2013).

Table 4-15: CO₂ Emissions from Soda Ash Production and Consumption Not Associated with Glass Manufacturing (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	Production	Consumption	Total
1990	1.4	1.4	2.8
2005	1.7	1.3	3.0
2008	1.7	1.2	3.0
2009	1.5	1.1	2.6
2010	1.5	1.1	2.7
2011	1.6	1.1	2.7
2012	1.6	1.1	2.7

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-16: CO₂ Emissions from Soda Ash Production and Consumption Not Associated with Glass Manufacturing (Gg)

Year	Production	Consumption	Total
1990	1,360	1,381	2,741
2005	1,573	1,296	2,868
2008	1,647	1,219	2,865

bicarbonate, which then precipitates from the brine solution. The precipitated sodium bicarbonate is then calcined back into sodium carbonate. Although CO₂ is generated as a byproduct, the CO₂ is recovered and recycled for use in the carbonation stage and is not emitted. A third state, Colorado, produced soda ash until the plant was idled in 2004. The lone producer of sodium bicarbonate no longer mines trona in the state. For a brief time, sodium bicarbonate was produced using soda ash feedstocks mined in Wyoming and shipped to Colorado. Prior to 2004, because the trona was mined in Wyoming, the production numbers given by the USGS included the feedstocks mined in Wyoming and shipped to Colorado. In this way, the sodium bicarbonate production that took place in Colorado was accounted for in the Wyoming numbers.

2009	1,397	1,091	2,488
2010	1,471	1,141	2,612
2011	1,526	1,098	2,624
2012	1,582	1,090	2,672

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

During the production process, trona ore is calcined in a rotary kiln and chemically transformed into a crude soda ash that requires further processing. Carbon dioxide and water are generated as byproducts of the calcination process. Carbon dioxide emissions from the calcination of trona can be estimated based on the chemical reaction shown above. Based on this formula, which is consistent with an IPCC Tier 1 approach, approximately 10.27 metric tons of trona are required to generate one metric ton of CO₂, or an emission factor of 0.097 metric tons CO₂ per metric ton trona (IPCC 2006). Thus, the 17.1 million metric tons of trona mined in 2012 for soda ash production (USGS 2013) resulted in CO₂ emissions of approximately 1.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,582 Gg).

Once produced, most soda ash is consumed in chemical and soap production, with minor amounts in pulp and paper, flue gas desulfurization, and water treatment. As soda ash is consumed for these purposes, additional CO₂ is usually emitted. In these applications, it is assumed that one mole of carbon is released for every mole of soda ash used. Thus, approximately 0.113 metric tons of carbon (or 0.415 metric tons of CO₂) are released for every metric ton of soda ash consumed.

The activity data for trona production and soda ash consumption (see Table 4-17) between 1990 and 2012 were taken from USGS Minerals Yearbook for Soda Ash (1994 through 2013). Soda ash production and consumption data were collected by the USGS from voluntary surveys of the U.S. soda ash industry.

Table 4-17: Soda Ash Production and Consumption Not Associated with Glass Manufacturing (Gg)

Year	Production*	Consumption**
1990	14,700	3,351
2005	17,000	3,144
2008	17,800	2,957
2009	15,100	2,647
2010	15,900	2,768
2011	16,500	2,663
2012	17,100	2,645

* Soda ash produced from trona ore only.

** Soda ash consumption is sales reported by producers which exclude imports. Historically, imported soda ash is less than 1 percent of the total U.S. consumption (Kostick, 2012).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Emission estimates from soda ash production have relatively low associated uncertainty levels in that reliable and accurate data sources are available for the emission factor and activity data. Soda ash production data was collected by the USGS from voluntary surveys. A survey request was sent to each of the five soda ash producers, all of which responded, representing 100 percent of the total production data (USGS 2013). One source of uncertainty is the purity of the trona ore used for manufacturing soda ash. The emission factor used for this estimate assumes the ore is 100 percent pure, and likely overestimates the emissions from soda ash manufacture. The average water-soluble sodium carbonate-bicarbonate content for ore mined in Wyoming ranges from 85.5 to 93.8 percent (USGS

1995a). The primary source of uncertainty, however, results from the fact that emissions from soda ash consumption are dependent upon the type of processing employed by each end-use. Specific emission factors for each end-use are not available, so a Tier 1 default emission factor is used for all end uses. Therefore, there is uncertainty surrounding the emission factors from the consumption of soda ash.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-18. Soda Ash Production and Consumption CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 2.5 and 2.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 6 percent below and 5 percent above the emission estimate of 2.7 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-18: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Soda Ash Production and Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	CO ₂	2.7	2.5	2.8	-6%	+5%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

In inventories prior to 2011, emissions from soda ash included CO₂ from glass production. Emissions from glass production are now included in the Glass Production source category, and historical production figures in Table 4-17 have been adjusted to remove the amount of soda ash associated with non-glass uses. This resulted in an average emission decrease of 1.3 Tg of CO₂ across the time-series. All emissions shown in Table 4-15 and Table 4-16 were revised accordingly.

Planned Improvements

Future inventory reports are anticipated to estimate emissions from other uses of soda ash. To add specificity, future inventories will extract soda ash consumed for other uses of carbonates from the current soda ash consumption emission estimates and include them under those sources; in 2011 and 2012 glass production is its own sub-category.

In examining data from EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for Soda Ash and Consumption category, particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹²⁹

¹²⁹ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

4.5 Glass Production (IPCC Source Category 2A7)

Glass production is an energy and raw-material intensive process that results in the generation of CO₂ from both the energy consumed in making glass and the glass process itself. Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of glass are accounted for in the Energy sector.

Glass production employs a variety of raw materials in a glass-batch. These include formers, fluxes, stabilizers, and sometimes colorants. The major raw materials (i.e., fluxes and stabilizers) which emit process-related CO₂ emissions during the glass melting process are limestone, dolomite, and soda ash. The main former in all types of glass is silica (SiO₂). Other major formers in glass include feldspar and boric acid (i.e., borax). Fluxes are added to lower the temperature at which the batch melts. Most commonly used flux materials are soda ash (sodium carbonate, Na₂CO₃) and potash (potassium carbonate, K₂O). Stabilizers are used to make glass more chemically stable and to keep the finished glass from dissolving and/or falling apart. Commonly used stabilizing agents in glass production are limestone (CaCO₃), dolomite (CaCO₃MgCO₃), alumina (Al₂O₃), magnesia (MgO), barium carbonate (BaCO₃), strontium carbonate (SrCO₃), lithium carbonate (Li₂CO₃), and zirconia (ZrO₂) (OIT 2002). Glass makers also use a certain amount of recycled scrap glass (cullet), which comes from in-house return of glassware broken in the process or other glass spillage or retention such as recycling or cullet broker services.

The raw materials (primarily limestone, dolomite and soda ash) release CO₂ emissions in a complex high-temperature chemical reaction during the glass melting process. This process is not directly comparable to the calcination process used in lime manufacturing, cement manufacturing, and Process Carbonates Use (i.e., limestone/dolomite use), but has the same net effect in terms of CO₂ emissions (IPCC 2006). The U.S. glass industry can be divided into four main categories: containers, flat (window) glass, fiber glass, and specialty glass. The majority of commercial glass produced is container and flat glass (EPA 2009). The United States is one of the major global exporters of glass. Domestically, demand comes mainly from the construction, auto, bottling, and container industries. There are over 1,500 companies that manufacture glass in the United States, with the largest being Corning, Guardian Industries, Owens-Illinois, and PPG Industries.¹³⁰

In 2012, 553 thousand metric tons of limestone and 2,420 thousand metric tons of soda ash were consumed for glass production; no dolomite was used in 2012 for glass production (USGS 2013b, Willett 2013). Use of limestone, dolomite, and soda ash in glass production resulted in aggregate CO₂ emissions of 1.25 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,247.5 Gg) (see Table 4-19). Overall, emissions have decreased 19 percent from 1990 through 2012.

Emissions from glass production have remained relatively constant over the time series with some fluctuations since 1990. In general, these fluctuations were related to the behavior of the export market and the U.S. economy. Specifically, the extended downturn in residential and commercial construction and automotive industries between 2008 and 2010 resulted in reduced consumption of glass products, causing a drop in global demand for limestone/dolomite and soda ash, and a corresponding decrease in emissions. Furthermore, the glass container sector is one of the leading soda ash consuming sectors in the United States. Some commercial food and beverage package manufacturers are shifting from glass containers towards lighter and more cost effective polyethylene terephthalate (PET) based containers, putting downward pressure on domestic consumption of soda ash (USGS 1995 through 2013b).

Table 4-19: CO₂ Emissions from Glass Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	1.5	1,535
2005	1.9	1,928

¹³⁰ Excerpt from Glass & Glass Product Manufacturing Industry Profile, First Research. Available online at <<http://www.firstresearch.com/Industry-Research/Glass-and-Glass-Product-Manufacturing.html>>.

2008	1.5	1,523
2009	1.0	1,045
2010	1.5	1,481
2011	1.3	1,299
2012	1.2	1,247

Methodology

CO₂ emissions were calculated based on the IPCC 2006 Guidelines Tier 3 method by multiplying the quantity of input carbonates (limestone, dolomite, and soda ash) by the carbonate-based emission factor (in metric tons CO₂/metric ton carbonate): limestone –0.43971; dolomite –0.47732; and soda ash –0.41492.

Consumption data for 1990 through 2012 of limestone, dolomite, and soda ash used for glass manufacturing were obtained from the USGS *Minerals Yearbook: Crushed Stone Annual Report* (1995 through 2012a), 2012 preliminary data from the USGS Crushed Stone Commodity Expert (Willett 2013), the *USGS Minerals Yearbook: Soda Ash Annual Report* (1995 through 2013b), and the U.S. Bureau of Mines (1991 and 1993a), which are reported to the nearest ton. During 1990 and 1992, the USGS did not conduct a detailed survey of limestone and dolomite consumption by end-use. Consumption for 1990 was estimated by applying the 1991 percentages of total limestone and dolomite use constituted by the individual limestone and dolomite uses to 1990 total use. Similarly, the 1992 consumption figures were approximated by applying an average of the 1991 and 1993 percentages of total limestone and dolomite use constituted by the individual limestone and dolomite uses to the 1992 total.

Additionally, each year the USGS withholds data on certain limestone and dolomite end-uses due to confidentiality agreements regarding company proprietary data. For the purposes of this analysis, emissive end-uses that contained withheld data were estimated using one of the following techniques: (1) the value for all the withheld data points for limestone or dolomite use was distributed evenly to all withheld end-uses; or (2) the average percent of total limestone or dolomite for the withheld end-use in the preceding and succeeding years.

There is a large quantity of limestone and dolomite reported to the USGS under the categories “unspecified – reported” and “unspecified – estimated.” A portion of this consumption is believed to be limestone or dolomite used for glass manufacturing. The quantities listed under the “unspecified” categories were, therefore, allocated to glass manufacturing according to the percent limestone or dolomite consumption for glass manufacturing end use for that year.¹³¹

Based on the 2012 reported data, the estimated distribution of soda ash consumption for glass production compared to total domestic soda ash consumption is 48 percent (USGS 2013b).

Table 4-20: Limestone, Dolomite, and Soda Ash Consumption Used in Glass Production (Thousand Metric Tons)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Limestone	430	920	879	139	999	614	553
Dolomite	59	541	0	0	0	0	0
Soda Ash	3,177	3,050	2,740	2,370	2,510	2,480	2,420
Total	3,666	4,511	3,619	2,509	3,509	3,094	2,973

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainty levels presented in this section arise in part due to variations in the chemical composition of limestone used in glass production. In addition to calcium carbonate, limestone may contain smaller amounts of magnesia, silica, and sulfur, among other minerals (potassium carbonate, strontium carbonate and barium carbonate,

¹³¹ This approach was recommended by USGS.

and dead burned dolomite). Similarly, the quality of the limestone (and mix of carbonates) used for glass manufacturing will depend on the type of glass being manufactured.

The estimates below also account for uncertainty associated with activity data. Large fluctuations in reported consumption exist, reflecting year-to-year changes in the number of survey responders. The uncertainty resulting from a shifting survey population is exacerbated by the gaps in the time series of reports. The accuracy of distribution by end use is also uncertain because this value is reported by the manufacturer of the input carbonates (limestone, dolomite & soda ash) and not the end user. For 2012, there has been no reported consumption of dolomite for glass manufacturing. This data has been reported to USGS by dolomite manufacturers and not end-users (i.e., glass manufacturers). There is a high uncertainty associated with this estimate, as dolomite is a major raw material consumed in glass production. Additionally, there is significant inherent uncertainty associated with estimating withheld data points for specific end uses of limestone and dolomite. The uncertainty of the estimates for limestone and dolomite used in glass making is especially high; however, since glass making accounts for a small percent of consumption, its contribution to the overall emissions estimate is low. Lastly, much of the limestone consumed in the United States is reported as “other unspecified uses;” therefore, it is difficult to accurately allocate this unspecified quantity to the correct end-uses. Further research is needed into alternate and more complete sources of data on carbonate-based raw material consumption by the glass industry.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-21. In 2012, Glass production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 1.2 and 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 5 percent below and 5 percent above the emission estimate of 1.2 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-21: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Glass Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Glass Production	CO ₂	1.2	1.2	1.3	-5%	+5%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Pending resources, future improvements involve evaluating and analyzing data reported under EPA’s GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Glass Production source category. Particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA’s GHGRP, with the program’s initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this inventory. Further, EPA’s GHGRP has an emission threshold for reporting, so the data do not account for all glass production in the United States. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA’s GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹³²

¹³² See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

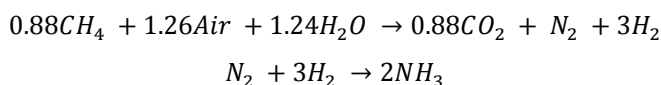
4.6 Ammonia Production (IPCC Source Category 2B1)

Emissions of CO₂ occur during the production of synthetic ammonia, primarily through the use of natural gas, petroleum coke, or naphtha as a feedstock. The natural gas-, naphtha-, and petroleum coke-based processes produce CO₂ and hydrogen (H₂), the latter of which is used in the production of ammonia. Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of ammonia are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

In the United States, the majority of ammonia is produced using a natural gas feedstock; however one synthetic ammonia production plant located in Kansas is producing ammonia from petroleum coke feedstock. In some U.S. plants, some of the CO₂ produced by the process is captured and used to produce urea rather than being emitted to the atmosphere. There are approximately 13 companies operating 25 ammonia producing facilities in 16 states. More than half of domestic ammonia production is concentrated in the States of Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas (USGS 2012). The brine electrolysis process for production of ammonia does not lead to process-based CO₂ emissions.

There are five principal process steps in synthetic ammonia production from natural gas feedstock. The primary reforming step converts CH₄ to CO₂, carbon monoxide (CO), and H₂ in the presence of a catalyst. Only 30 to 40 percent of the CH₄ feedstock to the primary reformer is converted to CO and CO₂ in this step of the process. The secondary reforming step converts the remaining CH₄ feedstock to CO and CO₂. The CO in the process gas from the secondary reforming step (representing approximately 15 percent of the process gas) is converted to CO₂ in the presence of a catalyst, water, and air in the shift conversion step. Carbon dioxide is removed from the process gas by the shift conversion process, and the hydrogen gas is combined with the nitrogen (N₂) gas in the process gas during the ammonia synthesis step to produce ammonia. The CO₂ is included in a waste gas stream with other process impurities and is absorbed by a scrubber solution. In regenerating the scrubber solution, CO₂ is released from the solution.

The conversion process for conventional steam reforming of CH₄, including the primary and secondary reforming and the shift conversion processes, is approximately as follows:



To produce synthetic ammonia from petroleum coke, the petroleum coke is gasified and converted to CO₂ and H₂. These gases are separated, and the H₂ is used as a feedstock to the ammonia production process, where it is reacted with N₂ to form ammonia.

Not all of the CO₂ produced during the production of ammonia is emitted directly to the atmosphere. Some of the ammonia and some of the CO₂ produced by the synthetic ammonia process are used as raw materials in the production of urea [CO(NH₂)₂], which has a variety of agricultural and industrial applications.

The chemical reaction that produces urea is:



Only the CO₂ emitted directly to the atmosphere from the synthetic ammonia production process are accounted for in determining emissions from ammonia production. The CO₂ that is captured during the ammonia production process and used to produce urea does not contribute to the CO₂ emission estimates for ammonia production presented in this section. Instead, CO₂ emissions resulting from the consumption of urea are attributed to the urea consumption or urea application source category (under the assumption that the carbon stored in the urea during its manufacture is released into the environment during its consumption or application). Emissions of CO₂ resulting from agricultural applications of urea are accounted for in the Cropland Remaining Cropland section of the Land-use, Land-use Change, and Forestry chapter. Emissions of CO₂ resulting from non-agricultural applications of urea (e.g., use as a feedstock in chemical production processes) are accounted for in the Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes section of the Industrial Process chapter.

Total emissions of CO₂ from ammonia production in 2012 were 9.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (9,366 Gg), and are summarized in Table 4-22 and Table 4-23. Ammonia production relies on natural gas as both a feedstock and a fuel, and as such, market fluctuations and volatility in natural gas prices affect the production of ammonia. .

Table 4-22: CO₂ Emissions from Ammonia Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Ammonia Production	13.0	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.2	9.4	9.4
Total	13.0	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.2	9.4	9.4

Table 4-23: CO₂ Emissions from Ammonia Production (Gg)

Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Ammonia Production	13,047	9,196	8,414	8,454	9,188	9,428	9,366
Total	13,047	9,196	8,414	8,454	9,188	9,428	9,366

Methodology

CO₂ emissions from production of synthetic ammonia from natural gas feedstock is based on the 2006 IPCC *Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) Tier 1 and 2 method. A country-specific emission factor is developed and applied to national ammonia production to estimate emissions. The method uses a CO₂ emission factor published by the European Fertilizer Manufacturers Association (EFMA) that is based on natural gas-based ammonia production technologies that are similar to those employed in the United States. The CO₂ emission factor of 1.2 metric tons CO₂/metric ton NH₃ (EFMA 2000a) is applied to the percent of total annual domestic ammonia production from natural gas feedstock.

Emissions of CO₂ from ammonia production are then adjusted to account for the use of some of the CO₂ produced from ammonia production as a raw material in the production of urea. The CO₂ emissions reported for ammonia production are reduced by a factor of 0.733 multiplied by total annual domestic urea production. This corresponds to a stoichiometric CO₂/urea factor of 44/60, assuming complete conversion of NH₃ and CO₂ to urea (IPCC 2006, EFMA 2000b).

All synthetic ammonia production and subsequent urea production are assumed to be from the same process—conventional catalytic reforming of natural gas feedstock, with the exception of ammonia production from petroleum coke feedstock at one plant located in Kansas. Annual ammonia and urea production are shown in Table 4-24. The CO₂ emission factor for production of ammonia from petroleum coke is based on plant specific data, wherein all carbon contained in the petroleum coke feedstock that is not used for urea production is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere as CO₂ (Bark 2004). Ammonia and urea are assumed to be manufactured in the same manufacturing complex, as both the raw materials needed for urea production are produced by the ammonia production process. The CO₂ emission factor of 3.57 metric tons CO₂/metric ton NH₃ for the petroleum coke feedstock process (Bark 2004) is applied to the percent of total annual domestic ammonia production from petroleum coke feedstock.

The emission factor of 1.2 metric ton CO₂/metric ton NH₃ for production of ammonia from natural gas feedstock was taken from the EFMA Best Available Techniques publication, *Production of Ammonia* (EFMA 2000a). The EFMA reported an emission factor range of 1.15 to 1.30 metric ton CO₂/metric ton NH₃, with 1.2 metric ton CO₂/metric ton NH₃ as a typical value (EFMA 2000a). Technologies (e.g., catalytic reforming process, etc.) associated with this factor are found to closely resemble those employed in the United States for use of natural gas as a feedstock. The EFMA reference also indicates that more than 99 percent of the CH₄ feedstock to the catalytic reforming process is ultimately converted to CO₂. The emission factor of 3.57 metric ton CO₂/metric ton NH₃ for production of ammonia from petroleum coke feedstock was developed from plant-specific ammonia production data and petroleum coke feedstock utilization data for the ammonia plant located in Kansas (Bark 2004). As noted earlier, emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of ammonia are accounted for in the Energy chapter. The total ammonia production data for 2011 and 2012 was obtained from American Chemistry Council (2012, 2013). For years before 2011, ammonia production data (See Table 4-24) was obtained from

Coffeyville Resources (Coffeyville 2005, 2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012) and the Census Bureau of the U.S. Department of Commerce (U.S. Census Bureau 1991 through 1994, 1998 through 2010) as reported in Current Industrial Reports Fertilizer Materials and Related Products annual and quarterly reports. Urea-ammonia nitrate production from petroleum coke for years through 2011 was obtained from Coffeyville Resources (Coffeyville 2005, 2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012), and from CVR Energy, Inc. Annual Report (CVR 2012) for 2012. Urea production data for 1990 through 2008 were obtained from the Minerals Yearbook: Nitrogen (USGS 1994 through 2009). Urea production data for 2009 through 2010 were obtained from the U.S. Bureau of the Census (U.S. Bureau of the Census 2010 and 2011). The U.S. Bureau of the Census ceased collection of urea production statistics, and urea production data for 2011 and 2012 were estimated using the ammonia production information in 2011 and assuming that the ratio of urea production to ammonia production is the same as the production ratio in 2010.

Table 4-24: Ammonia Production and Urea Production (Gg)

Year	Ammonia Production	Urea Production
1990	15,425	7,450
2005	10,143	5,270
2008	9,570	5,240
2009	9,372	5,084
2010	10,084	5,122
2011	10,325	5,245
2012	10,305	5,235

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainties presented in this section are primarily due to how accurately the emission factor used represents an average across all ammonia plants using natural gas feedstock. Uncertainties are also associated with ammonia production estimates and the assumption that all ammonia production and subsequent urea production was from the same process—conventional catalytic reforming of natural gas feedstock, with the exception of one ammonia production plant located in Kansas that is manufacturing ammonia from petroleum coke feedstock. Uncertainty is also associated with the representativeness of the emission factor used for the petroleum coke-based ammonia process. It is also assumed that ammonia and urea are produced at collocated plants from the same natural gas raw material.

Recovery of CO₂ from ammonia production plants for purposes other than urea production (e.g., commercial sale, etc.) has not been considered in estimating the CO₂ emissions from ammonia production, as data concerning the disposition of recovered CO₂ are not available. Such recovery may or may not affect the overall estimate of CO₂ emissions depending upon the end use to which the recovered CO₂ is applied. Further research is required to determine whether byproduct CO₂ is being recovered from other ammonia production plants for application to end uses that are not accounted for elsewhere.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-25. Ammonia Production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 8.8 and 10.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 6.3 percent below and 6.7 percent above the emission estimate of 9.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-25: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Ammonia Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
Ammonia Production	CO ₂	9.4	8.8	10.0	-6.3%	+6.7%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Production estimates for ammonia production from petroleum coke were updated for the years 2008 through 2012 using information obtained in the CVR Energy Annual reports (CVR 2008, 2012). The values for ammonia production from petroleum coke for the years 2008 through 2011 included in the previous Inventory did not account for ammonia that was used for urea ammonium nitrate (UAN) production. Emission estimates were revised to include these data.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements involve continuing to evaluate and analyze data reported under EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Ammonia Production source category. Particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this Inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹³³ Specifically, the planned improvements include assessing data to update the emission factors to include both fuel and feedstock CO₂ emissions and incorporate CO₂ capture and storage. Methodologies will also be updated if additional ammonia-production plants are found to use hydrocarbons other than natural gas for ammonia production.

4.7 Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes

Urea is produced using ammonia and CO₂ as raw materials. All urea produced in the United States is assumed to be produced at ammonia production facilities where both ammonia and CO₂ are generated. There are approximately 20 of these facilities operating in the U.S.

The chemical reaction that produces urea is:



This section accounts for CO₂ emissions associated with urea consumed exclusively for non-agricultural purposes. CO₂ emissions associated with urea consumed for fertilizer are accounted for in the Cropland Remaining Cropland section of the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter.

Urea is used as a nitrogenous fertilizer for agricultural applications and also in a variety of industrial applications. Urea's industrial applications include its use in adhesives, binders, sealants, resins, fillers, analytical reagents, catalysts, intermediates, solvents, dyestuffs, fragrances, deodorizers, flavoring agents, humectants and dehydrating agents, formulation components, monomers, paint and coating additives, photosensitive agents, and surface treatments agents. In addition, urea is used for abating nitrous oxide emissions from coal-fired power plants and diesel transportation motors.

¹³³ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

Emissions of CO₂ from urea consumed for non-agricultural purposes in 2012 were estimated to be 5.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5,243 Gg), and are summarized in Table 4-26 and Table 4-27.

Table 4-26: CO₂ Emissions from Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Urea Consumption	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.0	5.2
Total	3.8	3.7	4.1	3.4	4.7	4.0	5.2

Table 4-27: CO₂ Emissions from Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes (Gg)

Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Urea Consumption	3,784	3,653	4,065	3,427	4,728	3,999	5,243
Total	3,784	3,653	4,065	3,427	4,728	3,999	5,243

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ resulting from urea consumption for non-agricultural purposes are estimated by multiplying the amount of urea consumed in the United States for non-agricultural purposes by a factor representing the amount of CO₂ used as a raw material to produce the urea. This method is based on the assumption that all of the carbon in urea is released into the environment as CO₂ during use, and consistent with the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006).

The amount of urea consumed for non-agricultural purposes in the United States is estimated by deducting the quantity of urea fertilizer applied to agricultural lands, which is obtained directly from the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter (see Table 7-28) and is reported in Table 4-28, from the total domestic supply of urea. The domestic supply of urea is estimated based on the amount of urea produced plus the sum of net urea imports and exports. A factor of 0.73 tons of CO₂ per ton of urea consumed is then applied to the resulting supply of urea for non-agricultural purposes to estimate CO₂ emissions from the amount of urea consumed for non-agricultural purposes. The 0.733 tons of CO₂ per ton of urea emission factor is based on the stoichiometry of producing urea from ammonia and CO₂. This corresponds to a stoichiometric CO₂/urea factor of 44/60, assuming complete conversion of NH₃ and CO₂ to urea (IPCC 2006, EFMA 2000).

Urea production data for 1990 through 2008 were obtained from the Minerals Yearbook: Nitrogen (USGS 1994 through 2009). Urea production data for 2009 through 2010 were obtained from the U.S. Bureau of the Census (2011). The U.S. Bureau of the Census ceased collection of urea production statistics in 2011, therefore urea production data for 2011 and 2012 were estimated using the ammonia production information in 2011 and assuming that the ratio of urea production to ammonia production is the same as the production ratio in 2010. Urea import data for 2011 and 2012 were taken from U.S. Fertilizer Import/Exports from USDA Economic Research Service Data Sets (U.S. Department of Agriculture 2012). Urea import data for the previous years were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau Current Industrial Reports Fertilizer Materials and Related Products annual and quarterly reports for 1997 through 2010 (U.S. Census Bureau 1998 through 2011), The Fertilizer Institute (TFI 2002) for 1993 through 1996, and the United States International Trade Commission Interactive Tariff and Trade DataWeb (U.S. ITC 2002) for 1990 through 1992 (see Table 4-28). Urea export data for 1990 through 2012 were taken from U.S. Fertilizer Import/Exports from USDA Economic Research Service Data Sets (U.S. Department of Agriculture 2012).

Table 4-28: Urea Production, Urea Applied as Fertilizer, Urea Imports, and Urea Exports (Gg)

Year	Urea Production	Urea Applied as Fertilizer	Urea Imports	Urea Exports
1990	7,450	3,296	1,860	854
2005	5,270	4,779	5,026	536
2008	5,240	4,927	5,459	230
2009	5,084	4,848	4,727	289
2010	5,122	5,154	6,631	152
2011	5,245	5,444	5,860	207
2012	5,235	4,693	6,944	336

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

There is limited publicly available data on the quantities of urea produced and consumed for non-agricultural purposes. Therefore, the amount of urea used for non-agricultural purposes is estimated based on a balance that relies on estimates of urea production, urea imports, urea exports, and the amount of urea used as fertilizer. The primary uncertainties associated with this source category are associated with the accuracy of these estimates as well as the fact that each estimate is obtained from a different data source. Because urea production estimates are no longer available from the USGS, there is additional uncertainty associated with urea produced beginning in 2011. There is also uncertainty associated with the assumption that all of the carbon in urea is released into the environment as CO₂ during use.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-29. CO₂ emissions associated with urea consumption for non-agricultural purposes were estimated to be between 4.7 and 5.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 9.5 percent below and 9.8 percent above the emission estimate of 5.2 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-29: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	CO ₂	5.2	4.7	5.8	-9.5%	+9.8%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

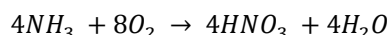
Planned Improvements

Future improvements to the urea consumption for non-agricultural purposes source category involve continuing to research obtaining data on how much urea is consumed for specific application (especially non-agricultural) in the United States and whether carbon is released to the environment fully during each application. Future improvements also include identifying a new data source for the production of urea in the United States.

4.8 Nitric Acid Production (IPCC Source Category 2B2)

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is emitted during the production of nitric acid (HNO₃), an inorganic compound used primarily to make synthetic commercial fertilizers. It is also a major component in the production of adipic acid—a feedstock for nylon—and explosives. Virtually all of the nitric acid produced in the United States is manufactured by the catalytic oxidation of ammonia (EPA 1997). During this reaction, N₂O is formed as a byproduct and is released from reactor vents into the atmosphere. Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of nitric acid are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

Nitric acid is made from the reaction of ammonia (NH₃) with oxygen (O₂) in two stages. The overall reaction is:



Currently, the nitric acid industry controls for emissions of NO and NO₂ (i.e., NO_x). As such, the industry in the United States uses a combination of non-selective catalytic reduction (NSCR) and selective catalytic reduction (SCR) technologies. In the process of destroying NO_x, NSCR systems are also very effective at destroying N₂O. However, NSCR units are generally not preferred in modern plants because of high energy costs and associated high gas temperatures. NSCR systems were widely installed in nitric plants built between 1971 and 1977. As of 2012, approximately 44 percent of nitric acid plants use NSCR or other catalyst-based N₂O abatement technology, representing 28 percent of estimated national nitric acid production (EPA 2010, IFDC 2012, CAR 2013, EPA 2013a, EPA 2013b, EPA 2013c). The remaining 72 percent of nitric acid production occurs using SCR or extended absorption, neither of which is known to reduce N₂O emissions.¹³⁴

N₂O emissions from this source were estimated to be 15.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (49 Gg) in 2012 (see Table 4-30). Emissions from nitric acid production have decreased by 16 percent since 1990, with the trend in the time series closely tracking the changes in production. Emissions have decreased by 30 percent since 1997, the highest year of production in the time series.

Table 4-30: N₂O Emissions from Nitric Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	18.2	59
2005	16.9	55
2008	16.9	54
2009	14.0	45
2010	16.7	54
2011	15.8	51
2012	15.3	49

Methodology

To estimate N₂O emissions from nitric acid production, weighted emission factors were developed both for processes that employ NSCR and for processes that do not employ NSCR following an approach based on the 2006

¹³⁴ Number of plants and production lines using N₂O abatement technology is based on publicly available N₂O abatement project and permit information (EPA 2010, CAR 2013, EPA 2013c), supplemented with information available from trade associations (IFDC 2012) and non-confidential business information data elements from EPA's GHGRP (EPA 2013a). Using boilerplate production capacity information available for each plant and a national estimate of nitric acid production capacity utilization, we estimate that approximately 28.1 percent of estimated national nitric acid was produced on lines using NSCR or other catalyst-based N₂O abatement technology as of 2012 (EPA 2010, IFDC 2012, CAR 2013, EPA 2013a, EPA 2013c).

IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) Tier 2 method. Using data on use of abatement technologies reported for 2012 in EPA’s GHGRP, and publicly available capacity data (EPA 2012), the portion of national production where abatement technologies are applied and portion produced without use of N₂O abatement technology were determined. In 2012, an estimated 28 percent of national production was produced with NSCR or catalyst-based N₂O abatement technology. Facility level production capacity was used as proxy for production since EPA does not have access to publicly available time series of production data at the facility level. From this information, and using the assumption that the utilization rate is approximately the same for all facilities, a ratio of uncontrolled to controlled production was calculated. The emission factor was determined as a weighted average of the two IPCC default emission factors: 2.0 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃ produced at plants using NSCR systems and 9.0 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃ produced at plants not equipped with NSCR. The weighted emission factor for 2012 is 7.0 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃.

The percent production with and without NSCR will likely change year over year due to changes in facility-level abatement technologies used and also due to plant closures and start-ups. Weighted emission factors were developed for 1990-2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012. The methodology used for calculating the weighted emission factors for the different time-periods is essentially the same for all years.

Publicly available GHGRP information on plant-level abatement technology type was used to estimate percent production with and without abatement for the years 2010, 2011, and 2012. In 2011 approximately 24 percent of national production was produced with NSCR or catalyst-based N₂O abatement technologies. The resulting weighted emission factor for 2011 is 7.3 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃. In 2010, one facility that did not have abatement systems installed was not operational. As a result, in 2010 approximately 17 percent of national production was produced with NSCR or catalyst-based N₂O abatement technologies. The resulting weighted emission factor for 2010 is 7.8 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃.

For years prior to 2010, publicly available information on plant-level abatement technologies was used to estimate percent production with and without abatement (EPA 2010, EPA 2013c). This information was obtained through publicly available sources such as operating permits and state agencies. In 2009, several nitric acid production facilities that did not have NSCR abatement systems installed were closed (Desai 2012, EPA 2012) and one facility installed catalyst-based N₂O abatement technology (CAR 2013). As a result, in 2009 approximately 26 percent of HNO₃ plants in the United States were equipped with NSCR or catalyst-based N₂O abatement technology representing 19.7 percent of estimated national production. Therefore, the resulting emission factor is 7.6 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃ for 2009.

For 1990 through 2008, N₂O emissions were calculated by multiplying nitric acid production by the weighted emission factor developed using publicly available data on use of abatement technologies, e.g. obtained from operating permits and state agencies (EPA 2012). During 1990 through 2008, it was estimated that approximately 88 percent of nitric acid was produced without using NSCR systems (EPA 2010, EPA 2013c), resulting in an emission factor of 8.1 kg N₂O/metric ton HNO₃.

Nitric acid production data for the United States for 1990 through 2002 were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau (2010b); 2003 production data were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau (2008); 2004 through 2007 production data were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau (2009); and 2008 and 2009 production data were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau (2010a) (see Table 4-31). The U.S. Census Bureau (2012) ceased collecting production data after the second quarter of 2011. The nitric acid production data for years 2010 and 2011 were obtained from USGS (USGS 2012). Since 2012 data are not yet available, 2011 production data were used as proxy for 2012.

Table 4-31: Nitric Acid Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	7,195
2005	6,711
2008	6,686
2009	5,924
2010	6,930
2011	7,000

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty associated with the parameters used to estimate N₂O emissions includes that of production data, the share of U.S. nitric acid production attributable to each emission abatement technology over the time series, and the emission factors applied to each abatement technology type. While some information has been obtained through outreach with industry associations, limited information is available over the time series for a variety of facility level variables, including plant specific production levels, plant production technology (e.g., low, high pressure, etc.) and abatement technology type, installation date of abatement technology, and accurate destruction and removal efficiency rates.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-32. N₂O emissions from nitric acid production were estimated to be between 9.5 and 21.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 37 percent below to 38 percent above the 2012 emissions estimate of 15.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-32: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for N₂O Emissions from Nitric Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Nitric Acid Production	N ₂ O	15.3	9.5	21.0	-37%	+38%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Methodological recalculations were applied to 2010 and 2011 to ensure time-series consistency and to reflect improved information on use of abatement technologies publicly available through EPA's GHGRP. The information on use of abatement technologies at the facility-level and information on plant closures and start-ups were updated for 2010 and 2011. This resulted in a revised weighted emission factor for 2010 and 2011. Details on the emission trends and abatement technology trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

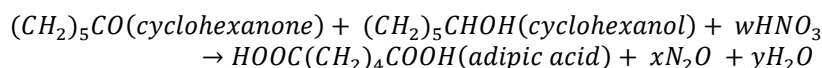
This inventory incorporates research into the availability of facility level nitric acid production data, abatement technology type and installation dates, the share of nitric acid production attributable to various abatement technologies in recent years, as well as efforts to analyze data reported under EPA's GHGRP. These research efforts are especially important given the suspension of the U.S. Census Bureau's Current Industrial Reports data series, from which national Nitric Acid production data have historically been derived. In examining data from EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for nitric acid production category, particular attention was made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as reported in this inventory. Similar research is planned for upcoming years as additional GHGRP data become available. In implementing future improvements and

integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹³⁵

A potential improvement to the inventory estimates for this source category would be to derive country-specific emission factors using data from EPA's GHGRP for the reported emissions and the aggregated facility production. The emission factors developed for the current Inventory, and applied for years prior to 2010, were based upon 2011 production estimates produced by the U.S. Census Bureau (2011). Emission factors developed using aggregated actual facility production could potentially reduce the uncertainty of the calculated emission factor, for more recent years.

4.9 Adipic Acid Production (IPCC Source Category 2B3)

Adipic acid is produced through a two-stage process during which N₂O is generated in the second stage. Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of adipic acid are accounted for in the Energy chapter. The first stage of manufacturing usually involves the oxidation of cyclohexane to form a cyclohexanone/cyclohexanol mixture. The second stage involves oxidizing this mixture with nitric acid to produce adipic acid. N₂O is generated as a byproduct of the nitric acid oxidation stage and is emitted in the waste gas stream (Thiemens and Trogler 1991). The second stage is represented by the following chemical reaction:



Process emissions from the production of adipic acid vary with the types of technologies and level of emission controls employed by a facility. In 1990, two of the three major adipic acid-producing plants had N₂O abatement technologies in place and, as of 1998, the three major adipic acid production facilities had control systems in place (Reimer et al. 1999). One small plant, which last operated in April 2006 and represented approximately two percent of production, did not control for N₂O (VA DEQ 2009; ICIS 2007; VA DEQ 2006).

Worldwide, only a few adipic acid plants exist. The United States, Europe, and China are the major producers. In 2012, the United States had two companies with a total of three adipic acid production facilities, all of which were operational (EPA 2013). The United States accounts for the largest share of global adipic acid production capacity (30 percent), followed by the European Union (29 percent) and China (22 percent) (SEI 2010). Adipic acid is a white crystalline solid used in the manufacture of synthetic fibers, plastics, coatings, urethane foams, elastomers, and synthetic lubricants. Commercially, it is the most important of the aliphatic dicarboxylic acids, which are used to manufacture polyesters. Eighty-four percent of all adipic acid produced in the United States is used in the production of nylon 6,6; 9 percent is used in the production of polyester polyols; 4 percent is used in the production of plasticizers; and the remaining 4 percent is accounted for by other uses, including unsaturated polyester resins and food applications (ICIS 2007). Food grade adipic acid is used to provide some foods with a "tangy" flavor (Thiemens and Trogler 1991).

N₂O emissions from adipic acid production were estimated to be 5.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (19 Gg) in 2012 (see Table 4-33). National adipic acid production has increased by approximately 1 percent over the period of 1990 through 2012, to roughly 760,000 metric tons. Over the period 1990 to 2012, emissions have been reduced by 64 percent due to both the widespread installation of pollution control measures in the late 1990s and plant idling in the late 2000s. In April 2006, the smallest of the four facilities ceased production of adipic acid (VA DEQ 2009); furthermore, one of the major adipic acid production facilities was not operational in 2009 or 2010 (Desai 2010). All three remaining facilities were in operation in 2012.

Table 4-33: N₂O Emissions from Adipic Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

¹³⁵ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	15.8	51
2005	7.4	24
2008	2.6	8
2009	2.8	9
2010	4.4	14
2011	10.6	34
2012	5.8	19

Methodology

Very little information on annual trends in the activity data exist for adipic acid. Primary production data is derived from the American Chemistry Council (ACC) *Guide to the Business of Chemistry*, which does not provide source specific trend information, however information for adipic acid was not available from this source for 2012. The USGS does not currently publish a Minerals Yearbook for adipic acid, and it is not included in the general USGS Minerals Commodity Summary.

Due to confidential business information, plant names are not provided in this section. Therefore, the four adipic acid-producing plants will be referred to as Plants 1 through 4.

All emission estimates for 2012 were obtained through analysis of the GGHGRP data (EPA, 2013), which is consistent with the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) Tier 3 method. For Plants 1 and 2, 1990 to 2011 emission estimates were obtained directly from the plant engineer and account for reductions due to control systems in place at these plants during the time series (Desai 2010, EPA 2012). These estimates were based on continuous process monitoring equipment installed at the two facilities. In 2009 and 2010, no adipic acid production occurred at Plant 1 (EPA 2012). For Plant 4, N₂O emissions were estimated until shutdown of the plant in 2006 using the following equation:

$$E_{aa} = Q_{aa} \times EF_{aa} \times (1 - [DF \times UF])$$

where,

E_{aa}	=	N ₂ O emissions from adipic acid production, metric tons
Q_{aa}	=	Quantity of adipic acid produced, metric tons
EF_{aa}	=	Emission factor, metric ton N ₂ O/metric ton adipic acid produced
DF	=	N ₂ O destruction factor
UF	=	Abatement system utility factor

The adipic acid production is multiplied by an emission factor (i.e., N₂O emitted per unit of adipic acid produced), which has been estimated, based on experiments that the reaction stoichiometry for N₂O production in the preparation of adipic acid at approximately 0.3 metric tons of N₂O per metric ton of product (IPCC 2006). The “N₂O destruction factor” in the equation represents the percentage of N₂O emissions that are destroyed by the installed abatement technology. The “abatement system utility factor” represents the percentage of time that the abatement equipment operates during the annual production period. Overall, in the United States, two of the plants employ catalytic destruction (Plants 1 and 2), one plant employs thermal destruction (Plant 3), and the smallest plant that closed in 2006 used no N₂O abatement equipment (Plant 4).

For Plant 3, 2005 through 2011 emissions were obtained directly from the plant engineer and analysis of GHGRP data (EPA 2012, Desai 2012). For 1990 through 2004, emissions were estimated using plant-specific production data and IPCC factors as described above for Plant 4. Production data for 1990 through 2003 was estimated by allocating national adipic acid production data to the plant level using the ratio of known plant capacity to total national capacity for all U.S. plants. For 2004, actual plant production data were obtained and used for emission calculations (CW 2005).

Plant capacities for 1990 through 1994 were obtained from Chemical and Engineering News, “Facts and Figures” and “Production of Top 50 Chemicals” (C&EN 1992 through 1995). Plant capacities for 1995 and 1996 were kept

the same as 1994 data. The 1997 plant capacities were taken from Chemical Market Reporter “Chemical Profile: Adipic Acid” (CMR 1998). The 1998 plant capacities for all four plants and 1999 plant capacities for three of the plants were obtained from Chemical Week, Product Focus: Adipic Acid/Adiponitrile (CW 1999). Plant capacities for 2000 for three of the plants were updated using Chemical Market Reporter, “Chemical Profile: Adipic Acid” (CMR 2001). For 2001 through 2003, the plant capacities for three plants were kept the same as the year 2000 capacities. Plant capacity for 1999 to 2003 for the one remaining plant was kept the same as 1998. For Plant 4, which last operated in April 2006 (VA DEQ 2009), plant-specific production data were obtained across the time series from 1990 through 2008 (VA DEQ 2010). Since the plant has not operated since 2006, production through 2012 was assumed to be zero. The plant-specific production data were then used for calculating emissions as described above.

National adipic acid production data (see Table 4-34) from 1990 through 2011 were obtained from the American Chemistry Council (ACC 2012), although this data was not used in estimating the emissions from adipic acid plants.

Table 4-34: Adipic Acid Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	755
2005	865
2008	805
2009	760
2010	710
2011	760
2012	N/A

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty associated with N₂O emission estimates included that of the methods used by companies to monitor and estimate emissions.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-35. N₂O emissions from adipic acid production for 2012 were estimated to be between 5.5 and 6.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. These values indicate a range of approximately 4 percent below to 4 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 5.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-35: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for N₂O Emissions from Adipic Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2012 Emission Estimate Gas (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.) (%)			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Adipic Acid Production	N ₂ O 5.8	5.5	6.0	-4%	+4%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

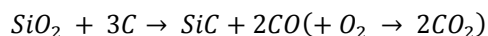
Future improvements involve continuing to evaluate, analyze, and use data reported under EPA’s GHGRP that would provide more accurate emission estimates for future years, and could also be useful to improve the emission factors used for the Adipic Acid Production source category for years prior to 2010. Particular attention would be

made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future Inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required because the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories has been, and will continue to be, relied upon.¹³⁶ Specifically, the planned improvements include continuing to assess data to reflect abatement utility and destruction factors based on actual performance of the latest catalytic and thermal abatement equipment at plants with continuous process and emission monitoring equipment.

4.10 Silicon Carbide Production (IPCC Source Category 2B4) and Consumption

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane CH₄ are emitted from the production of silicon carbide (SiC), a material used as an industrial abrasive. Silicon carbide is produced for abrasive, metallurgical, and other non-abrasive applications in the United States. Production for metallurgical and other non-abrasive applications is not available and therefore both CO₂ and CH₄ estimates are based solely upon production estimates of silicon carbide for abrasive applications. Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of silicon carbide are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

To produce SiC, silica sand or quartz (SiO₂) is reacted with carbon in the form of petroleum coke. A portion (about 35 percent) of the carbon contained in the petroleum coke is retained in the SiC. The remaining carbon is emitted as CO₂, CH₄, or CO. The overall reaction is shown below (but in practice it does not proceed according to stoichiometry):



Carbon dioxide is also emitted from the consumption of SiC for metallurgical and other non-abrasive applications.

Markets for manufactured abrasives, including SiC, are heavily influenced by activity in the U.S. manufacturing sector, especially in the aerospace, automotive, furniture, housing, and steel manufacturing sectors. The USGS reports that a portion (approximately 50 percent) of SiC is used in metallurgical and other non-abrasive applications, primarily in iron and steel production (USGS 2006a). As a result of the economic downturn in 2008 and 2009, demand for SiC decreased in those years. Low cost imports, particularly from China, combined with high relative operating costs for domestic producers, continue to put downward pressure on the production of SiC in the United States. However, demand for SiC consumption in the United States has recovered somewhat from its lows in 2009 (USGS 2012a). Silicon carbide is manufactured at a single facility located in Illinois (USGS 2013b).

Carbon dioxide emissions from SiC production and consumption in 2012 were 0.16 Tg CO₂ Eq. (158 Gg). Approximately 58 percent of these emissions resulted from SiC production while the remainder resulted from SiC consumption. Methane emissions from SiC production in 2012 were 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.4 Gg CH₄) (see Table 4-36: and Table 4-37). Emissions have fluctuated in recent years, but 2012 emissions are only about 42 percent of emissions in 1990.

¹³⁶ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

Table 4-36: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-37: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption (Gg)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	375	219	175	145	181	170	158
CH ₄	1	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from the production of SiC were calculated using the Tier 1 method provided by the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). Annual estimates of SiC production were multiplied by the appropriate emission factor, as shown below:

$$E_{sc,CO_2} = EF_{sc,CO_2} \times Q_{sc}$$

$$E_{sc,CH_4} = EF_{sc,CH_4} \times Q_{sc} \times \left(\frac{1 \text{ metric ton}}{1000 \text{ kg}} \right)$$

where,

E_{sc,CO_2}	=	CO ₂ emissions from production of SiC, metric tons
EF_{sc,CO_2}	=	Emission factor for production of SiC, metric ton CO ₂ /metric ton SiC
Q_{sc}	=	Quantity of SiC produced, metric tons
E_{sc,CH_4}	=	CH ₄ emissions from production of SiC, metric tons
EF_{sc,CH_4}	=	Emission factor for production of SiC, kilogram CH ₄ /metric ton SiC

Emission factors were taken from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006):

- 2.62 metric tons CO₂/metric ton SiC
- 11.6 kg CH₄/metric ton SiC

Emissions of CO₂ from silicon carbide consumption for metallurgical uses were calculated by multiplying the annual utilization of SiC for metallurgical uses (reported annually in the USGS Minerals Yearbook for Silicon) by the carbon content of SiC (31.5 percent), which was determined according to the molecular weight ratio of SiC.

Emissions of CO₂ from silicon carbide consumption for other non-abrasive uses were calculated by multiplying the annual SiC consumption for non-abrasive uses by the carbon content of SiC (31.5 percent). The annual SiC consumption for non-abrasive uses was calculated by multiplying the annual SiC consumption (production plus net imports) by the percent used in metallurgical and other non-abrasive uses (50 percent) (USGS 2006a) and then subtracting the SiC consumption for metallurgical use.

Production data for 1990 through 2010 were obtained from the Minerals Yearbook: Manufactured Abrasives (USGS 1991a through 2013b). Production data for 2011 and 2012 were taken from the Minerals Commodity Summary: Abrasives (Manufactured) (USGS 2012a, 2013a). Silicon carbide consumption by major end use was obtained from the Minerals Yearbook: Silicon (USGS 1991b through 2011b, 2012c, and 2013c) (see Table 4-38). Net imports for the entire time series were obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau (2005 through 2013).

Table 4-38: Production and Consumption of Silicon Carbide (Metric Tons)

Year	Production	Consumption
1990	105,000	172,465
2005	35,000	220,149
2008	35,000	144,928
2009	35,000	92,280
2010	35,000	154,540
2011	35,000	136,222
2012	35,000	114,265

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

There is uncertainty associated with the emission factors used because they are based on stoichiometry as opposed to monitoring of actual SiC production plants. An alternative would be to calculate emissions based on the quantity of petroleum coke used during the production process rather than on the amount of silicon carbide produced. However, these data were not available. For CH₄, there is also uncertainty associated with the hydrogen-containing volatile compounds in the petroleum coke (IPCC 2006). There is also uncertainty associated with the use or destruction of methane generated from the process in addition to uncertainty associated with levels of production, net imports, consumption levels, and the percent of total consumption that is attributed to metallurgical and other non-abrasive uses.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-39. Silicon carbide production and consumption CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 9 percent below and 9 percent above the emission estimate of 0.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. Silicon carbide production CH₄ emissions were estimated to be between 9 percent below and 9 percent above the emission estimate of 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level.

Table 4-39: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and CO₂ Emissions from Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2012 Emission Estimate		Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
	Gas	(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	CO ₂	0.2	0.1	0.2	-9%	+9%
Silicon Carbide Production	CH ₄	+	+	+	-9%	+9%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.5 Gg.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements involve continuing to evaluate and analyze data reported under EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Silicon Carbide Production source category. Particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available

for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹³⁷ In addition, improvements will involve continued research to determine if calcium carbide production and consumption data are available for the United States. If these data are available, calcium carbide emission estimates will be included in this source category.

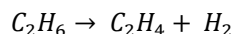
4.11 Petrochemical Production (IPCC Source Category 2B5)

The production of some petrochemicals results in the release of small amounts of CH₄ and CO₂ emissions.

Petrochemicals are chemicals isolated or derived from petroleum or natural gas. Methane (CH₄) emissions from the production of carbon black, ethylene, ethylene dichloride, and methanol and CO₂ emissions from the production of carbon black are presented here and reported under IPCC Source Category 2B5. Acrylonitrile and ethylene oxide are additional chemical processes that are included in the IPCC petrochemical production source category, but have not been included in the U.S. estimates of emissions from this category due to the unavailability of data. The CO₂ emissions from petrochemical processes other than carbon black are currently reported under Carbon Emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels in the Energy chapter. The CO₂ from carbon black production is included here to allow for the direct reporting of CO₂ emissions from the process and direct accounting of the feedstocks used in the process.

Carbon black is a black powder generated by the incomplete combustion of an aromatic petroleum- or coal-based feedstock at a high temperature. Most carbon black produced in the United States is added to rubber to impart strength and abrasion resistance, and the tire industry is by far the largest consumer. The other major use of carbon black is as a pigment. The predominant process used in the United States is the furnace black (or oil furnace) process. In the furnace black process, carbon black oil (a heavy aromatic liquid) is continuously injected into the combustion zone of a natural gas-fired furnace. Furnace heat is provided by the natural gas and a portion of the carbon black feedstock; the remaining portion of the carbon black feedstock is pyrolyzed to carbon black. The resultant CO₂ and uncombusted CH₄ emissions are released from thermal incinerators used as control devices, process dryers, and equipment leaks. Carbon black is also produced in the United States by the thermal cracking of acetylene-containing feedstocks (i.e., acetylene black process), by the thermal cracking of other hydrocarbons (i.e., thermal black process), and by the open burning of carbon black feedstock (i.e., lamp black process); each of these processes are used at only one U.S. plant each (The Innovation Group 2004, EPA 2000). A total of 21 U.S. facilities manufacture carbon black with the largest number located in Texas (8) and Louisiana (5) with additional facilities in Alabama, Arkansas, California, Kansas, Ohio, Oklahoma, and West Virginia (2) (EPA 2008).

Ethylene (C₂H₄) is consumed in the production processes of the plastics industry including polymers such as high, low, and linear low density polyethylene (HDPE, LDPE, LLDPE), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), ethylene dichloride, ethylene oxide, and ethylbenzene. Virtually all ethylene is produced from steam cracking of ethane, propane, butane, naphtha, gas oil, and other feedstocks. The representative chemical equation for steam cracking of ethane to ethylene is shown below:

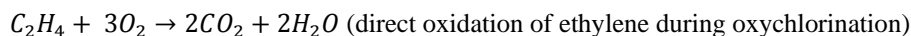
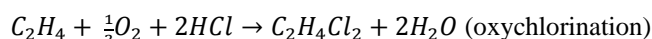
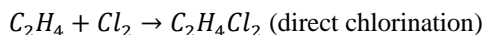


Small amounts of CH₄ are also generated from the steam cracking process. In addition, CO₂ and CH₄ emissions are also generated from combustion units. A total of 39 U.S. facilities produce ethylene with most facilities located in Texas (24) and Louisiana (11); the additional facilities are located in Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, and Pennsylvania (EPA 2008).

Ethylene dichloride (C₂H₄Cl₂) is used to produce vinyl chloride monomer, which is the precursor to polyvinyl chloride (PVC). Ethylene dichloride was used as a fuel additive until 1996 when leaded gasoline was phased out. Ethylene dichloride is produced from ethylene by either direct chlorination, oxychlorination, or a combination of the

¹³⁷ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

two processes (i.e., the “balanced process”); most U.S. facilities use the balanced process. The direct chlorination and oxychlorination reactions are shown below:



In addition to the by-product CO₂ produced from the direct oxidation of the ethylene feedstock, CO₂ and CH₄ emissions are also generated from combustion units. A total of 16 U.S. facilities produce ethylene dichloride and are located in only three states: Louisiana (8), Texas (7), and Kentucky (1) (EPA 2008).

Methanol (CH₃OH) is a chemical feedstock most often converted into formaldehyde, acetic acid and olefins. It is also an alternative transportation fuel, as well as an additive used by municipal wastewater treatment facilities in the denitrification of wastewater. Methanol is most commonly synthesized from a synthesis gas (i.e., “syngas” – a mixture containing H₂, CO, and CO₂) using a heterogeneous catalyst. There are a number of process techniques that can be used to produce syngas. Worldwide, steam reforming of natural gas is the most common method; however, in the U.S. only two facilities use steam reforming of natural gas. Other syngas production processes in the U.S. include partial oxidation of natural gas and coal gasification. Only five U.S. facilities produce methanol; these facilities are located in Louisiana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Texas.

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from petrochemical production in 2012 were 3.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3,505 Gg CO₂) and 3.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (147 Gg CH₄), respectively (see Table 4-40 and Table 4-41), totaling 6.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. There has been an overall decrease in CO₂ emissions from carbon black production of 1.3 percent since 1990. Methane emissions from petrochemical production have increased by approximately 36 percent since 1990.

Table 4-40: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Petrochemical Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	3.4	4.3	3.6	2.8	3.5	3.5	3.5
CH ₄	2.3	3.1	2.9	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.1
Total	5.7	7.5	6.5	5.7	6.5	6.6	6.6

Table 4-41: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Petrochemical Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	3,429	4,330	3,572	2,833	3,455	3,505	3,505
CH ₄	108	150	137	138	146	148	147

Methodology

Emissions of CH₄ were calculated using the Tier 1 method provided by the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). Annual estimates of chemical production were multiplied by the appropriate emission factor, as shown below:

$$E_p = EF_p \times Q_p \times \left(\frac{1 \text{ metric ton}}{1000 \text{ kg}} \right)$$

where,

- E_p = CH₄ emissions from production of petrochemical *p*, metric tons
- EF_p = Emission factor for petrochemical *p*, kilogram CH₄/metric ton petrochemical *p*
- Q_p = Quantity of petrochemical *p* produced

Emission factors were taken from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006):

- 0.06 kg CH₄/metric ton carbon black
- 6 kg CH₄/metric ton ethylene
- 0.0226 kg CH₄/metric ton ethylene dichloride
- 2.3 kg CH₄/metric ton methanol

Annual production data (see Table 4-42) were obtained from the American Chemistry Council’s Guide to the Business of Chemistry (ACC 2002, 2003, 2005 through 2012), the American Chemistry Council’s U.S. Chemical Industry Statistical Handbook (ACC 2013) and the International Carbon Black Association (Johnson 2003 and 2005 through 2013). Production data for ethylene dichloride were not available for 2012 from the American Chemistry Council; the 2012 production was assumed to be equivalent to 2011 production. Methanol production data for 1990 through 2007 were obtained from the ACC Guide to the Business of Chemistry (ACC 2002, 2003, 2005 through 2011). The ACC discontinued its data series for Methanol after 2007, so methanol production data for 2008 through 2013 were obtained through the Methanol Institute (Jordan 2013).

Table 4-42: Production of Selected Petrochemicals (Thousand Metric Tons)

Chemical	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Carbon Black	1,307	1,651	1,362	1,080	1,317	1,337	1,337
Ethylene	16,542	23,975	22,555	22,610	23,975	24,410	23,975
Ethylene Dichloride	6,283	11,260	8,975	8,120	8,810	8,460	8,460
Methanol	3,785	2,336	810	810	903	760	1,100

Almost all carbon black in the United States is produced from petroleum- or coal-based feedstocks using the “furnace black” process (European IPPC Bureau 2004). The furnace black process is a partial combustion process in which a portion of the carbon black feedstock is combusted to provide energy to the process.

The calculation of the carbon lost during the production process is the basis for determining the amount of CO₂ released during the process. The carbon content of national carbon black production is subtracted from the total amount of carbon contained in primary and secondary carbon black feedstock to find the amount of carbon lost during the production process. It is assumed that the carbon lost in this process is emitted to the atmosphere as either CH₄ or CO₂. The carbon content of the CH₄ emissions, estimated as described above, is subtracted from the total carbon lost in the process to calculate the amount of carbon emitted as CO₂. The total amount of primary and secondary carbon black feedstock consumed in the process (see Table 4-43) is estimated using a primary feedstock consumption factor and a secondary feedstock consumption factor estimated from U.S. Census Bureau (1999, 2004, and 2007) data. The average carbon black feedstock consumption factor for U.S. carbon black production is 1.69 metric tons of carbon black feedstock consumed per metric ton of carbon black produced. The average natural gas consumption factor for U.S. carbon black production is 321 normal cubic meters of natural gas consumed per metric ton of carbon black produced. The amount of carbon contained in the primary and secondary feedstocks is calculated by applying the respective carbon contents of the feedstocks to the respective levels of feedstock consumption (EIA 2003, 2004).

Table 4-43: Carbon Black Feedstock (Primary Feedstock) and Natural Gas Feedstock (Secondary Feedstock) Consumption (Thousand Metric Tons)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Primary Feedstock	2,213	2,794	2,305	1,828	2,229	2,262	2,262
Secondary Feedstock	284	359	296	235	286	290	290

For the purposes of emission estimation, 100 percent of the primary carbon black feedstock is assumed to be derived from petroleum refining byproducts. Carbon black feedstock derived from metallurgical (coal) coke production (i.e., creosote oil) is also used for carbon black production; however, no data are available concerning the annual consumption of coal-derived carbon black feedstock. Carbon black feedstock derived from petroleum refining byproducts is assumed to be 90 percent elemental carbon (IPCC 2006). It is assumed that 100 percent of the tail gas produced from the carbon black production process is combusted and that none of the tail gas is vented to the

atmosphere uncontrolled. The furnace black process is assumed to be the only process used for the production of carbon black because of the lack of data concerning the relatively small amount of carbon black produced using the acetylene black, thermal black, and lamp black processes. The carbon black produced from the furnace black process is assumed to be 97 percent elemental carbon (Othmer et al. 1992, IPCC 2006).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The CH₄ emission factors used for petrochemical production are based on a limited number of studies. Using plant-specific factors instead of default or average factors could increase the accuracy of the emission estimates; however, such data were not available for the current publication. There may also be other significant sources of CH₄ arising from petrochemical production activities that have not been included in these estimates.

The results of the quantitative uncertainty analysis for the CO₂ emissions from carbon black production calculation are based on feedstock consumption, import and export data, and carbon black production data. The composition of carbon black feedstock varies depending upon the specific refinery production process, and therefore the assumption that carbon black feedstock is 90 percent C gives rise to uncertainty. Also, no data are available concerning the consumption of coal-derived carbon black feedstock, so CO₂ emissions from the utilization of coal-based feedstock are not included in the emission estimate. In addition, other data sources indicate that the amount of petroleum-based feedstock used in carbon black production may be underreported by the U.S. Census Bureau. Finally, the amount of carbon black produced from the acetylene black, thermal black, and lamp black processes, although estimated to be a small percentage of the total production, is not known. Therefore, there is some uncertainty associated with the assumption that all of the carbon black is produced using the furnace black process.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-44. Petrochemical production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 2.6 and 4.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 26 percent below to 27 percent above the emission estimate of 3.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. Petrochemical production CH₄ emissions were estimated to be between 2.8 and 3.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 10 percent below to 10 percent above the emission estimate of 3.1 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-44: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Petrochemical Production and CO₂ Emissions from Carbon Black Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
Petrochemical Production	CO ₂	3.5	2.6	4.5	-26%	+27%
Petrochemical Production	CH ₄	3.1	2.8	3.4	-10%	+10%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

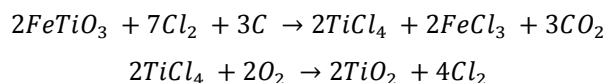
Pending resources, a potential improvement to the inventory estimates for this source category would include the derivation of country-specific emission factors, based on data reported under EPA's GHGRP which uses a method similar to IPCC Tier 2 and 3 approaches. Using data elements reported under EPA's GHGRP, specifically emissions and petrochemical production data (i.e., carbon black, ethylene, ethylene oxide, and acrylonitrile) that can be aggregated from facility level to national level for its use, EPA will derive a country-specific emission factor for estimating process emissions for each type of petrochemical produced. The new emission factors derived from GHGRP data will replace the use of IPCC defaults, as currently described in the methodological section.

Additionally, acrylonitrile and ethylene oxide are chemical processes that are included in the IPCC petrochemical

production source category, but have not been included in the U.S. emission estimates from this category due to a prior lack of data. Data on production of these two chemicals are not available from public sources used to establish the production and emissions from manufacture of the other petrochemical processes. However, information from these processes and other petrochemical products are collected by EPA’s GHGRP starting with calendar year 2010. In order to provide estimates for the entire time series (i.e., 1990 through 2009), EPA will need to evaluate the applicability of more recent GHGRP data to the full time series’ estimates, and potentially research additional data that could be utilized to calculate emissions from production of these chemicals. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA’s GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹³⁸

4.12 Titanium Dioxide Production (IPCC Source Category 2B5)

Titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is manufactured using one of two processes: the chloride process and the sulfate process. The chloride process uses petroleum coke and chlorine as raw materials and emits process-related CO₂. Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of titanium dioxide are accounted for in the Energy chapter. The chloride process is based on the following chemical reactions:



The sulfate process does not use petroleum coke or other forms of carbon as a raw material and does not emit CO₂.

The carbon in the first chemical reaction is provided by petroleum coke, which is oxidized in the presence of the chlorine and FeTiO₃ (rutile ore) to form CO₂. Since 2004, all TiO₂ produced in the United States has been produced using the chloride process, and a special grade of “calcined” petroleum coke is manufactured specifically for this purpose.

The principal use of TiO₂ is as a pigment in white paint, lacquers, and varnishes; it is also used as a pigment in the manufacture of paper, foods, plastics, and other products. In 2012, U.S. TiO₂ production totaled 1,300,000 metric tons (USGS 2013b). There were a total 6 plants producing TiO₂ in the United States—2 located in Mississippi, and single plants located in Delaware, Louisiana, Ohio, and Tennessee.

Emissions of CO₂ in 2012 were 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,742 Gg), which represents an increase of 46 percent since 1990 (see Table 4-45).

Table 4-45: CO₂ Emissions from Titanium Dioxide (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	1.2	1,195
2005	1.8	1,755
2008	1.8	1,809
2009	1.6	1,648
2010	1.8	1,769
2011	1.7	1,729
2012	1.7	1,742

¹³⁸ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ from TiO₂ production were calculated by multiplying annual national TiO₂ production by chloride-process-specific emission factors using a Tier 1 approach provided in *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). The Tier 1 equation is as follows:

$$E_{td} = EF_{td} \times Q_{td}$$

where,

E _{td}	=	CO ₂ emissions from TiO ₂ production, metric tons
EF _{td}	=	Emission factor (chloride process), metric ton CO ₂ /metric ton TiO ₂
Q _{td}	=	Quantity of TiO ₂ produced

Data were obtained for the total amount of TiO₂ produced each year. For years prior to 2004, it was assumed that TiO₂ was produced using the chloride process and the sulfate process in the same ratio as the ratio of the total U.S. production capacity for each process. As of 2004, the last remaining sulfate-process plant in the United States closed; therefore, 100 percent of post-2004 production uses the chloride process (USGS 2005). The percentage of production from the chloride process is estimated at 100 percent since 2004. An emission factor of 1.34 metric tons CO₂/metric ton TiO₂ was applied to the estimated chloride-process production (IPCC 2006). It was assumed that all TiO₂ produced using the chloride process was produced using petroleum coke, although some TiO₂ may have been produced with graphite or other carbon inputs.

The emission factor for the TiO₂ chloride process was taken from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). Titanium dioxide production data and the percentage of total TiO₂ production capacity that is chloride process for 1990 through 2010 (see Table 4-46:) were obtained through the Minerals Yearbook: Titanium Annual Report (USGS 1991 through 2013a). Production data for 2012 was obtained from the Minerals Commodity Summary: Titanium and Titanium Dioxide (USGS 2013b). Data on the percentage of total TiO₂ production capacity that is chloride process were not available for 1990 through 1993, so data from the 1994 USGS Minerals Yearbook were used for these years. Because a sulfate process plant closed in September 2001, the chloride process percentage for 2001 was estimated based on a discussion with Joseph Gambogi (2002). By 2002, only one sulfate plant remained online in the United States and this plant closed in 2004 (USGS 2005).

Table 4-46: Titanium Dioxide Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	979
2005	1,310
2008	1,350
2009	1,230
2010	1,320
2011	1,290
2012	1,300

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Each year, USGS collects titanium industry data for titanium mineral and pigment production operations. If TiO₂ pigment plants do not respond, production from the operations is estimated on the basis of prior year production levels and industry trends. Variability in response rates varies from 67 to 100 percent of TiO₂ pigment plants over the time series.

Although some TiO₂ may be produced using graphite or other carbon inputs, information and data regarding these practices were not available. Titanium dioxide produced using graphite inputs, for example, may generate differing amounts of CO₂ per unit of TiO₂ produced as compared to that generated through the use of petroleum coke in production. While the most accurate method to estimate emissions would be to base calculations on the amount of

reducing agent used in each process rather than on the amount of TiO₂ produced, sufficient data were not available to do so.

As of 2004, the last remaining sulfate-process plant in the United States closed. Since annual TiO₂ production was not reported by USGS by the type of production process used (chloride or sulfate) prior to 2004 and only the percentage of total production capacity by process was reported, the percent of total TiO₂ production capacity that was attributed to the chloride process was multiplied by total TiO₂ production to estimate the amount of TiO₂ produced using the chloride process. Finally, the emission factor was applied uniformly to all chloride-process production, and no data were available to account for differences in production efficiency among chloride-process plants. In calculating the amount of petroleum coke consumed in chloride-process TiO₂ production, literature data were used for petroleum coke composition. Certain grades of petroleum coke are manufactured specifically for use in the TiO₂ chloride process; however, this composition information was not available.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-47: Titanium dioxide consumption CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 1.5 and 2.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 12 percent below and 13 percent above the emission estimate of 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-47: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Titanium Dioxide Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Titanium Dioxide Production	CO ₂	1.7	1.5	2.0	-12%	+13%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Production data for 2011 were updated relative to the previous Inventory based on recently published data in the USGS Minerals Yearbook: Titanium 2013 (USGS 2013b). This resulted in a 9 percent decrease in 2011 CO₂ emissions from TiO₂ production relative to the previous report.

Planned Improvements

Pending resources, a potential improvement to the Inventory estimates for this source category would include the derivation of country-specific emission factors, based on data reported under EPA's GHGRP. Using data elements reported under EPA's GHGRP, specifically emissions and titanium production data that can be aggregated at the national level for its use, a country-specific emission factor for estimating process emissions will be derived. The emission factor will be derived by aggregating annual facility-level process line data on annual titanium dioxide production and facility level emissions. Information on titanium dioxide production is collected by EPA's GHGRP starting with calendar year 2010. In order to provide estimates for the entire time series (i.e., 1990 through 2009), the applicability of more recent GHGRP data to previous years' estimates will need to be evaluated, and additional data that could be utilized in the calculations for this source category may need to be researched. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹³⁹

In addition, the planned improvements include researching the significance of titanium-slag production in electric

¹³⁹ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

furnaces and synthetic-rutile production using the Becher process in the United States. Significant use of these production processes will be included in future estimates.

4.13 Carbon Dioxide Consumption (IPCC Source Category 2B5)

CO₂ is used for a variety of commercial applications, including food processing, chemical production, carbonated beverage production, and refrigeration, and is also used in petroleum production for enhanced oil recovery (EOR). Carbon dioxide used for EOR is injected into the underground reservoirs to increase the reservoir pressure to enable additional petroleum to be produced. For the most part, CO₂ used in non-EOR applications will eventually be released to the atmosphere, and for the purposes of this analysis CO₂ used in commercial applications other than EOR is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide used in EOR applications is discussed in the Energy Chapter under “Carbon Capture and Storage, including Enhanced Oil Recovery” and is not discussed in this section.

CO₂ is produced from naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs, as a byproduct from the energy and industrial production processes (e.g., ammonia production, fossil fuel combustion, ethanol production), and as a byproduct from the production of crude oil and natural gas, which contain naturally occurring CO₂ as a component. Only CO₂ produced from naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs and used in industrial applications other than EOR is included in this analysis. Neither byproduct CO₂ generated from energy nor industrial production processes nor CO₂ separated from crude oil and natural gas are included in this analysis for a number of reasons. Carbon dioxide captured from biogenic sources (e.g., ethanol production plants) is not included in the inventory. Carbon dioxide captured from crude oil and gas production is used in EOR applications and is therefore reported in the Energy Chapter. Any CO₂ captured from industrial or energy production processes (e.g., ammonia plants, fossil fuel combustion) and used in non-EOR applications is assumed to be emitted to the atmosphere. The CO₂ emissions from such capture and use are therefore accounted for under Ammonia Production, Fossil Fuel Combustion, or other appropriate source category.¹⁴⁰

CO₂ is produced as a byproduct of crude oil and natural gas production. This CO₂ is separated from the crude oil and natural gas using gas processing equipment, and may be emitted directly to the atmosphere, or captured and reinjected into underground formations, used for EOR, or sold for other commercial uses. A further discussion of CO₂ used in EOR is described in the Energy Chapter under the text box titled “Carbon Dioxide Transport, Injection, and Geological Storage.” The only CO₂ consumption that is accounted for in this analysis is CO₂ produced from naturally-occurring CO₂ reservoirs that is used in commercial applications other than EOR.

There are currently three facilities, one in Mississippi (Jackson Dome) and two in New Mexico (Bravo Dome and West Bravo Dome), producing CO₂ from naturally-occurring CO₂ reservoirs for use in both EOR and in other commercial applications (e.g., chemical manufacturing, food production). A fourth facility in Colorado (McCallum Dome) is producing CO₂ from naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs for commercial applications only. There are other naturally-occurring CO₂ reservoirs, mostly located in the western United States, that produce CO₂, but they are only producing CO₂ for EOR applications, not for other commercial applications (Allis et al. 2000). Carbon dioxide production from these facilities is discussed in the Energy Chapter.

In 2012, the amount of CO₂ produced by the Colorado, Mississippi, and New Mexico facilities for commercial applications and subsequently emitted to the atmosphere was 1.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,815 Gg) (see Table 4-48). This is a decrease of 2 percent from the previous year and an increase of 28 percent since 1990. This increase was largely due to an increase in production at the Mississippi facility, despite the low percentage (9 percent) of the facility’s total reported production that was used for commercial applications in 2012.

¹⁴⁰ There are currently four known electric power plants operating in the U.S. that capture CO₂ for use as food-grade CO₂ or other industrial processes; however, insufficient data prevents estimating emissions from these activities as part of CO₂ Consumption.

Table 4-48: CO₂ Emissions from CO₂ Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	1.4	1,416
2005	1.3	1,321
2008	1.8	1,780
2009	1.8	1,784
2010	2.3	2,253
2011	1.8	1,843
2012	1.8	1,815

Methodology

CO₂ emission estimates for 1990 through 2012 were based on production data for the four facilities currently producing CO₂ from naturally-occurring CO₂ reservoirs for use in non-EOR applications. Some of the CO₂ produced by these facilities is used for EOR and some is used in other commercial applications (e.g., chemical manufacturing, food production). It is assumed that 100 percent of the CO₂ production used in commercial applications other than EOR is eventually released into the atmosphere.

CO₂ production data and the percentage of production that was used for non-EOR applications for the Jackson Dome, Mississippi facility were obtained from Advanced Resources International (ARI 2006, 2007) for 1990 to 2000 and from the Annual Reports of Denbury Resources (Denbury Resources 2002 through 2013) for 2001 to 2012 (see Table 4-49). Denbury Resources reported the average CO₂ production in units of MMCF CO₂ per day for 2001 through 2012 and reported the percentage of the total average annual production that was used for EOR. Production from 1990 to 2000 was set equal to 2001 production. Carbon dioxide production data for the Bravo Dome, New Mexico facilities were obtained from ARI for 1990 through 2010. Data for the West Bravo Dome facility was only available for 2009 and 2010. Since 2012 CO₂ production was not available for Bravo Dome facilities, 2010 data was used as a proxy for 2012, and the percentage of total production that was used for non-EOR applications in 2012 was obtained from the GHGRP Flight Tool.¹⁴¹ The percentage of total production that was used for non-EOR applications for the Bravo Dome facilities for 1990 through 2011 were obtained from New Mexico Bureau of Geology and Mineral Resources (Broadhead 2003 and New Mexico Bureau of Geology and Mineral Resources 2006). Production data for the McCallum Dome, Colorado facility were obtained from the Colorado Oil and Gas Conservation Commission (COGCC) for 1999 through 2012 (COGCC 2013). Production data for 1990 to 1998 and percentage of production used for EOR were assumed to be the same as for 1999.

Table 4-49: CO₂ Production (Gg CO₂) and the Percent Used for Non-EOR Applications

Year	Jackson Dome, MS CO ₂ Production (Gg) (% Non-EOR)	Bravo Dome, NM CO ₂ Production (Gg) (% Non- EOR)	West Bravo Dome, NM CO ₂ Production (Gg) (% Non-EOR)	McCallum Dome, CO CO ₂ Production (Gg) (% Non-EOR)
1990	1,353 (100%)	63 (1%)	+	0.07 (100%)
2005	1,263 (27%)	58 (1%)	+	0.06 (100%)
2008	1,724 (14%)	56 (1%)	+	0.07 (100%)
2009	1,716 (13%)	46 (1%)	20 (1%)	0.02 (100%)
2010	2,145 (13%)	48 (1%)	9 (1%)	51 (100%)
2011	1,754 (9%)	48 (1%)	9 (1%)	33 (100%)
2012	1,782 (9%)	+	+	33 (100%)

+ Does not exceed 0%.

¹⁴¹ EPA's Facility Level Information on Greenhouse Gases Tool available online at <<http://ghgdata.epa.gov/ghgp/main.do>>.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty is associated with the number of facilities that are currently producing CO₂ from naturally occurring CO₂ reservoirs for commercial uses other than EOR, and for which the CO₂ emissions are not accounted for elsewhere. Research indicates that there are only two such facilities, which are in New Mexico and Mississippi; however, additional facilities may exist that have not been identified. In addition, it is possible that CO₂ recovery exists in particular production and end-use sectors that are not accounted for elsewhere. Such recovery may or may not affect the overall estimate of CO₂ emissions from that sector depending upon the end use to which the recovered CO₂ is applied. Further research is required to determine whether CO₂ is being recovered from other facilities for application to end uses that are not accounted for elsewhere.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-50. Carbon dioxide consumption CO₂ emissions for 2012 were estimated to be between 1.1 and 2.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 39 percent below to 40 percent above the emission estimate of 1.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-50: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from CO₂ Consumption (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CO ₂ Consumption	CO ₂	1.8	1.1	2.6	-39%	+40%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Relative to the previous Inventory, the 2010 and 2011 CO₂ consumption data for the McCallum Dome facility in Colorado was corrected after a unit conversion error was identified. These revised 2010 and 2011 estimates result in an annual increase in CO₂ emissions of approximately 0.05 Tg for those two years.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements involve evaluating and analyzing data reported under EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Carbon Dioxide Consumption source category. Particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency of the emission estimates presented in future Inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this Inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹⁴²

¹⁴² See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

4.14 Phosphoric Acid Production (IPCC Source Category 2B5)

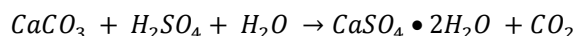
Phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄) is a basic raw material used in the production of phosphate-based fertilizers. Phosphoric acid production from natural phosphate rock is a source of CO₂ emissions, due to the chemical reaction of the inorganic carbon (calcium carbonate) component of the phosphate rock.

Phosphate rock is mined in Florida, North Carolina, Idaho, Utah, and other areas of the United States and is used primarily as a raw material for phosphoric acid production.

The composition of natural phosphate rock varies depending upon the location where it is mined. Natural phosphate rock mined in the United States generally contains inorganic carbon in the form of calcium carbonate (limestone) and also may contain organic carbon.

The calcium carbonate component of the phosphate rock is integral to the phosphate rock chemistry. Phosphate rock can also contain organic carbon that is physically incorporated into the mined rock but is not an integral component of the phosphate rock chemistry.

The phosphoric acid production process involves chemical reaction of the calcium phosphate (Ca₃(PO₄)₂) component of the phosphate rock with sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) and recirculated phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄) (EFMA 2000). However, the generation of CO₂ is due to the associated limestone-sulfuric acid reaction, as shown below:



Total U.S. phosphate rock production sold or used in 2012 was 26.6 million metric tons (USGS 2013). Approximately 80 percent of domestic phosphate rock production was mined in Florida and North Carolina (8 mines total), while the remaining 20 percent of production was mined in Idaho and Utah (5 mines total). Total imports of phosphate rock in 2012 were 2.9 million metric tons (USGS 2013). Most of the imported phosphate rock (70 percent) is from Morocco, with the remaining 30 percent being from Peru (USGS 2013). All phosphate rock mining companies are vertically integrated with fertilizer plants that produce phosphoric acid located near the mines. Some additional phosphoric acid production facilities are located in Texas, Louisiana, and Mississippi that used imported phosphate rock.

Over the 1990 to 2012 period, domestic production has decreased by nearly 47 percent. Total CO₂ emissions from phosphoric acid production were 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,101 Gg) in 2012 (see Table 4-51). Consumption of phosphate rock was estimated to have been lower in 2012 compared with 2011, owing to the lower seasonal demand in the first quarter of the year, which resulted in the temporary closure of some fertilizer plants (USGS 2013a).

Table 4-51: CO₂ Emissions from Phosphoric Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	1.6	1,586
2005	1.4	1,396
2008	1.2	1,177
2009	1.0	1,016
2010	1.1	1,130
2011	1.2	1,199
2012	1.1	1,101

Methodology

CO₂ emissions from production of phosphoric acid from phosphate rock are estimated by multiplying the average amount of inorganic carbon (expressed as CO₂) contained in the natural phosphate rock as calcium carbonate by the

amount of phosphate rock that is used annually to produce phosphoric acid, accounting for domestic production and net imports for consumption. The estimation methodology is as follows:

$$E_{pa} = C_{pr} \times Q_{pr}$$

where,

- E_{pa} = CO₂ emissions from phosphoric acid production, metric tons
 C_{pr} = Average amount of carbon (expressed as CO₂) in natural phosphate rock, metric ton CO₂/metric ton phosphate rock
 Q_{pr} = Quantity of phosphate rock used to produce phosphoric acid

The CO₂ emissions calculation methodology is based on the assumption that all of the inorganic carbon (calcium carbonate) content of the phosphate rock reacts to CO₂ in the phosphoric acid production process and is emitted with the stack gas. The methodology also assumes that none of the organic carbon content of the phosphate rock is converted to CO₂ and that all of the organic carbon content remains in the phosphoric acid product.

From 1993 to 2004, the *USGS Mineral Yearbook: Phosphate Rock* disaggregated phosphate rock mined annually in Florida and North Carolina from phosphate rock mined annually in Idaho and Utah, and reported the annual amounts of phosphate rock exported and imported for consumption (see Table 4-52). For the years 1990 through 1992, and 2005 through 2012, only nationally aggregated mining data was reported by USGS. For the years 1990, 1991, and 1992, the breakdown of phosphate rock mined in Florida and North Carolina, and the amount mined in Idaho and Utah, are approximated using average share of U.S. production in those states from 1993 to 2004 data. For the years 2005 through 2012, the same approximation method is used, but the share of U.S. production in those states data were obtained from the USGS commodity specialist for phosphate rock (USGS 2012). Data for domestic sales or consumption of phosphate rock, exports of phosphate rock (primarily from Florida and North Carolina), and imports of phosphate rock for consumption for 1990 through 2012 were obtained from *USGS Minerals Yearbook: Phosphate Rock* (USGS 1994 through 2013). From 2004 through 2012, the USGS reported no exports of phosphate rock from U.S. producers (USGS 2005 through 2013).

The carbonate content of phosphate rock varies depending upon where the material is mined. Composition data for domestically mined and imported phosphate rock were provided by the Florida Institute of Phosphate Research (FIPR 2003). Phosphate rock mined in Florida contains approximately 1 percent inorganic carbon, and phosphate rock imported from Morocco contains approximately 1.46 percent inorganic carbon. Calcined phosphate rock mined in North Carolina and Idaho contains approximately 0.41 percent and 0.27 percent inorganic carbon, respectively (see Table 4-53).

Carbonate content data for phosphate rock mined in Florida are used to calculate the CO₂ emissions from consumption of phosphate rock mined in Florida and North Carolina (80 percent of domestic production) and carbonate content data for phosphate rock mined in Morocco are used to calculate CO₂ emissions from consumption of imported phosphate rock. The CO₂ emissions calculation is based on the assumption that all of the domestic production of phosphate rock is used in uncalcined form. As of 2006, the USGS noted that one phosphate rock producer in Idaho produces calcined phosphate rock; however, no production data were available for this single producer (USGS 2006). The USGS confirmed that no significant quantity of domestic production of phosphate rock is in the calcined form (USGS 2012b).

Table 4-52: Phosphate Rock Domestic Consumption, Exports, and Imports (Gg)

Location/Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
U.S. Domestic							
Consumption ^a	49,800	35,200	28,900	25,500	28,100	28,600	26,600
FL and NC	42,494	28,160	23,120	20,400	22,480	22,880	21,280
ID and UT	7,306	7,040	5,780	5,100	5,620	5,720	5,320
Exports—FL and NC	6,240	+	+	+	+	+	+
Imports	451	2,630	2,750	2,000	2,400	3,350	2,850
Total U.S.							
Consumption	44,011	37,830	31,650	27,500	30,500	31,950	29,450

+ Assumed equal to zero.

Table 4-53: Chemical Composition of Phosphate Rock (percent by weight)

Composition	Central Florida	North Florida	North Carolina (calcined)	Idaho (calcined)	Morocco
Total Carbon (as C)	1.60	1.76	0.76	0.60	1.56
Inorganic Carbon (as C)	1.00	0.93	0.41	0.27	1.46
Organic Carbon (as C)	0.60	0.83	0.35	0.00	0.10
Inorganic Carbon (as CO ₂)	3.67	3.43	1.50	1.00	5.00

Source: FIPR 2003

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Phosphate rock production data used in the emission calculations were developed by the USGS through monthly and semiannual voluntary surveys of the active phosphate rock mines during 2012. For previous years in the time series, USGS provided the data disaggregated regionally; however, beginning in 2006, only total U.S. phosphate rock production was reported. Regional production for 2012 was estimated based on regional production data from previous years and multiplied by regionally-specific emission factors. There is uncertainty associated with the degree to which the estimated 2012 regional production data represents actual production in those regions. Total U.S. phosphate rock production data are not considered to be a significant source of uncertainty because all the domestic phosphate rock producers report their annual production to the USGS. Data for exports of phosphate rock used in the emission calculation are reported by phosphate rock producers and are not considered to be a significant source of uncertainty. Data for imports for consumption are based on international trade data collected by the U.S. Census Bureau. These U.S. government economic data are not considered to be a significant source of uncertainty.

An additional source of uncertainty in the calculation of CO₂ emissions from phosphoric acid production is the carbonate composition of phosphate rock, the composition of phosphate rock varies depending upon where the material is mined, and may also vary over time. The inventory relies on one study (FIPR 2003) of chemical composition of the phosphate rock; limited data is available beyond this study. Another source of uncertainty is the disposition of the organic carbon content of the phosphate rock. A representative of the FIPR indicated that in the phosphoric acid production process, the organic carbon content of the mined phosphate rock generally remains in the phosphoric acid product, which is what produces the color of the phosphoric acid product (FIPR 2003a). Organic carbon is therefore not included in the calculation of CO₂ emissions from phosphoric acid production.

A third source of uncertainty is the assumption that all domestically-produced phosphate rock is used in phosphoric acid production and used without first being calcined. Calcination of the phosphate rock would result in conversion of some of the organic carbon in the phosphate rock into CO₂. However, according to air permit information available to the public, at least one facility has calcining units permitted for operation (NCDENR 2013).

Finally, USGS indicated that approximately 7 percent of domestically-produced phosphate rock is used to manufacture elemental phosphorus and other phosphorus-based chemicals, rather than phosphoric acid (USGS 2006). According to USGS, there is only one domestic producer of elemental phosphorus, in Idaho, and no data were available concerning the annual production of this single producer. Elemental phosphorus is produced by reducing phosphate rock with coal coke, and it is therefore assumed that 100 percent of the carbonate content of the phosphate rock will be converted to CO₂ in the elemental phosphorus production process. The calculation for CO₂ emissions is based on the assumption that phosphate rock consumption, for purposes other than phosphoric acid production, results in CO₂ emissions from 100 percent of the inorganic carbon content in phosphate rock, but none from the organic carbon content.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-54. Phosphoric acid production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 0.9 and 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 19 percent below and 21 percent above the emission estimate of 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-54: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Phosphoric Acid Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	(%)
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			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Phosphoric Acid Production	CO ₂	1.1	0.9	1.3	-19%	+21%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Pending resources, a potential improvement to the inventory estimates for this source category would include updating the inorganic carbon content of phosphate rock based on data reported under EPA's GHGRP. This new inorganic carbon content factor would be applied to regional phosphate rock consumption aggregated from facility level reports in the methodology, replacing use of USGS national-level data for 2010 and onward. Information from phosphoric acid producers is now collected by EPA's GHGRP starting with calendar year 2010. In order to provide estimates for the entire time series (i.e. 1990 through 2009), EPA will need to evaluate applicability of more recent GHGRP data to previous years' estimates and potentially research additional data that could be utilized in the calculations for this source category. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹⁴³

4.15 Iron and Steel Production (IPCC Source Category 2C1) and Metallurgical Coke Production

Iron and steel production is a multi-step process that generates process-related emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ as raw materials are refined into iron and then transformed into crude steel. Emissions from conventional fuels (e.g., natural gas, fuel oil, etc.) consumed for energy purposes during the production of iron and steel are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

Iron and steel production includes six distinct production processes: coke production, sinter production, direct reduced iron (DRI) production, pig iron production, electric arc furnace (EAF) steel production, and basic oxygen furnace (BOF) steel production. The number of production processes at a particular plant is dependent upon the specific plant configuration. In addition to the production processes mentioned above, CO₂ is also generated at iron and steel mills through the consumption of process byproducts (e.g., blast furnace gas, coke oven gas, etc.) used for various purposes including heating, annealing, and electricity generation. Process byproducts sold for use as synthetic natural gas are deducted and reported in the Energy chapter. In general, CO₂ emissions are generated in these production processes through the reduction and consumption of various carbon-containing inputs (e.g., ore, scrap, flux, coke byproducts, etc.). In addition, fugitive CH₄ emissions are also generated by the coke production, sinter production, and pig iron production processes.

Currently, there are between 15 and 20 integrated iron and steel steelmaking facilities that utilize BOFs to refine and produce steel from iron and more than 100 steelmaking facilities that utilize EAFs to produce steel primarily from recycled ferrous scrap. In addition, there are 18 cokemaking facilities, of which 7 facilities are co-located with integrated iron and steel facilities. Nearly 62 percent of the raw steel produced in the United States is produced in one of seven states: Alabama, Arkansas, Indiana, Kentucky, Mississippi, Ohio, and Tennessee.

¹⁴³ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

Total production of crude steel in the United States between 2000 and 2008 ranged from a low of 99,320,000 tons to a high of 109,880,000 tons (2001 and 2004, respectively). Due to the decrease in demand caused by the global economic downturn (particularly from the automotive industry), crude steel production in the United States sharply decreased to 65,459,000 tons in 2009. In 2010, crude steel production rebounded to 88,731,000 tons as economic conditions improved and then continued to increase to 95,237,000 tons in 2011 and 97,770,000 tons in 2012 (AISI 2013). As of 2012, the United States was the third largest producer of raw steel in the world, behind China and Japan, accounting for approximately 6 percent of world production in 2012 (USGS 2012).

The majority of CO₂ emissions from the iron and steel production process come from the use of coke in the production of pig iron and from the consumption of other process byproducts, with lesser amounts emitted from the use of flux and from the removal of carbon from pig iron used to produce steel.

According to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006), the production of metallurgical coke from coking coal is considered to be an energy use of fossil fuel and the use of coke in iron and steel production is considered to be an industrial process source. Therefore, the Guidelines suggest that emissions from the production of metallurgical coke should be reported separately in the Energy source, while emissions from coke consumption in iron and steel production should be reported in the industrial process source. However, the approaches and emission estimates for both metallurgical coke production and iron and steel production are both presented here because the activity data used to estimate emissions from metallurgical coke production have significant overlap with activity data used to estimate iron and steel production emissions. In addition, some byproducts (e.g., coke oven gas, etc.) of the metallurgical coke production process are consumed during iron and steel production, and some byproducts of the iron and steel production process (e.g., blast furnace gas, etc.) are consumed during metallurgical coke production. Emissions associated with the consumption of these byproducts are attributed at the point of consumption. Emissions associated with the use of conventional fuels (e.g., natural gas, fuel oil, etc.) for electricity generation, heating and annealing, or other miscellaneous purposes downstream of the iron and steelmaking furnaces are reported in the Energy chapter.

Metallurgical Coke Production

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from metallurgical coke production in 2012 were 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (541 Gg) and less than 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.05 Gg), respectively (see Table 4-55 and Table 4-56), totaling 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. Emissions decreased in 2012 from 2011 levels and have decreased overall since 1990. In 2012, domestic coke production decreased by 2 percent from the previous year, and has decreased overall since 1990. Coke production in 2012 was 27 percent lower than in 2000 and 45 percent below 1990. Overall, emissions from metallurgical coke production have declined by 78 percent (1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2012.

Table 4-55: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Metallurgical Coke Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	2.5	2.0	2.3	1.0	2.1	1.4	0.5
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	2.5	2.0	2.3	1.0	2.1	1.4	0.5

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-56: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Metallurgical Coke Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	2,470	2,043	2,334	956	2,084	1,425	541
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg

Iron and Steel Production

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from iron and steel production in 2012 were 53.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (53,778 Gg) and 0.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (29.3 Gg), respectively (see Table 4-57 through Table 4-60), totaling approximately 54.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. Emissions decreased in 2012 and have decreased overall since 1990 due to restructuring of the industry,

technological improvements, and increased scrap steel utilization. Carbon dioxide emission estimates include emissions from the consumption of carbonaceous materials in the blast furnace, EAF, and BOF, as well as blast furnace gas and coke oven gas consumption for other activities at the steel mill.

In 2012, domestic production of pig iron increased by 6 percent from 2011 levels. Overall, domestic pig iron production has declined since the 1990s. Pig iron production in 2012 was 33 percent lower than in 2000 and 35 percent below 1990. Carbon dioxide emissions from steel production have increased by 24 percent (1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.) since 1990, while overall CO₂ emissions from iron and steel production have declined by 45 percent (43.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.) from 1990 to 2011.

Table 4-57: CO₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Sinter Production	2.4	1.7	1.3	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.2
Iron Production	47.6	19.4	25.6	15.9	19.1	19.9	12.6
Steel Production	8.0	9.4	8.4	7.6	9.2	9.3	9.9
Other Activities ^a	39.3	34.2	29.1	17.8	24.3	28.2	30.2
Total	97.3	64.6	64.5	42.1	53.7	58.6	53.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Includes emissions from blast furnace gas and coke oven gas combustion for activities at the steel mill other than consumption in blast furnace, EAFs, or BOFs.

Table 4-58: CO₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Sinter Production	2,448	1,663	1,299	763	1,045	1,188	1,159
Iron Production	47,650	19,414	25,622	15,941	19,109	19,901	12,551
Steel Production	7,958	9,386	8,422	7,555	9,248	9,262	9,873
Other Activities ^a	39,256	34,160	29,146	17,815	24,260	28,230	30,195
Total	97,311	64,623	64,488	42,073	53,662	58,583	53,778

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Includes emissions from blast furnace gas and coke oven gas combustion for activities at the steel mill other than consumption in blast furnace, EAFs, or BOFs.

Table 4-59: CH₄ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Sinter Production	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Iron Production	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6
Total	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-60: CH₄ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Sinter Production	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Iron Production	44.7	33.5	30.4	17.1	24.2	27.2	28.9
Total	45.6	34.1	30.8	17.4	24.5	27.6	29.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Emission estimates presented in this chapter are largely based on Tier 2 methodologies provided by the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). These Tier 2 methodologies call for a mass balance accounting of the carbonaceous inputs and outputs during the iron and steel production process and the

metallurgical coke production process. Tier 1 methods are used for certain iron and steel production processes (i.e., sinter production and DRI production) for which available data are insufficient for utilizing a Tier 2 method.

The Tier 2 methodology equation is as follows:

$$E_{CO_2} = \left[\sum_a (Q_a \times C_a) - \sum_b (Q_b \times C_b) \right] \times \frac{44}{12}$$

where,

- E_{CO_2} = Emissions from coke, pig iron, EAF steel, or BOF steel production, metric tons
- a = Input material a
- b = Output material b
- Q_a = Quantity of input material a , metric tons
- C_a = Carbon content of material a , metric tons C/metric ton material
- Q_b = Quantity of output material b , metric tons
- C_b = Carbon content of material b , metric tons C/metric ton material
- 44/12 = Stoichiometric ratio of CO₂ to C

The Tier 1 methodology equations are as follows:

$$E_{s,p} = Q_s \times EF_{s,p}$$

$$E_{d,p} = Q_d \times EF_{d,p}$$

where,

- $E_{s,p}$ = Emissions from sinter production process for pollutant p (CO₂ or CH₄), metric ton
- Q_s = Quantity of sinter produced, metric tons
- $EF_{s,p}$ = Emission factor for pollutant p (CO₂ or CH₄), metric ton p /metric ton sinter
- $E_{d,p}$ = Emissions from DRI production process for pollutant p (CO₂ or CH₄), metric ton
- Q_d = Quantity of DRI produced, metric tons
- $EF_{d,p}$ = Emission factor for pollutant p (CO₂ or CH₄), metric ton p /metric ton DRI

Metallurgical Coke Production

Coking coal is used to manufacture metallurgical (coal) coke that is used primarily as a reducing agent in the production of iron and steel, but is also used in the production of other metals including zinc and lead (see Zinc Production and Lead Production sections of this chapter). Emissions associated with producing metallurgical coke from coking coal are estimated and reported separately from emissions that result from the iron and steel production process. To estimate emission from metallurgical coke production, a Tier 2 method provided by the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) was utilized. The amount of carbon contained in materials produced during the metallurgical coke production process (i.e., coke, coke breeze, coke oven gas, and coal tar) is deducted from the amount of carbon contained in materials consumed during the metallurgical coke production process (i.e., natural gas, blast furnace gas, and coking coal). Light oil, which is produced during the metallurgical coke production process, is excluded from the deductions due to data limitations. The amount of carbon contained in these materials is calculated by multiplying the material-specific carbon content by the amount of material consumed or produced (see Table 4-61). The amount of coal tar produced was approximated using a production factor of 0.03 tons of coal tar per ton of coking coal consumed. The amount of coke breeze produced was approximated using a production factor of 0.075 tons of coke breeze per ton of coking coal consumed. Data on the consumption of carbonaceous materials (other than coking coal) as well as coke oven gas production were available for integrated steel mills only (i.e., steel mills with co-located coke plants). Therefore, carbonaceous material (other than coking coal) consumption and coke oven gas production were excluded from emission estimates for merchant coke plants. Carbon contained in coke oven gas used for coke-oven underfiring was not included in the deductions to avoid double-counting.

Table 4-61: Material Carbon Contents for Metallurgical Coke Production

Material	kg C/kg
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Coal Tar	0.62
Coke	0.83
Coke Breeze	0.83
Coking Coal	0.73
Material	kg C/GJ
Coke Oven Gas	12.1
Blast Furnace Gas	70.8

Source: IPCC 2006, Table 4.3. Coke Oven Gas and Blast Furnace Gas, Table 1.3.

The production processes for metallurgical coke production results in fugitive emissions of CH₄, which are emitted via leaks in the production equipment, rather than through the emission stacks or vents of the production plants. The fugitive emissions were calculated by applying Tier 1 emission factors (0.1g CH₄ per metric ton) taken from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006) for metallurgical coke production.

Data relating to the mass of coking coal consumed at metallurgical coke plants and the mass of metallurgical coke produced at coke plants were taken from the Energy Information Administration (EIA), *Quarterly Coal Report: October through December* (EIA 1998 through 2013d) (see Table 4-62). Data on the volume of natural gas consumption, blast furnace gas consumption, and coke oven gas production for metallurgical coke production at integrated steel mills were obtained from the American Iron and Steel Institute (AISI), *Annual Statistical Report* (AISI 2004 through 2013a) and through personal communications with AISI (2008b) (see Table 4-63). The factor for the quantity of coal tar produced per ton of coking coal consumed was provided by AISI (2008b). The factor for the quantity of coke breeze produced per ton of coking coal consumed was obtained through Table 2-1 of the report, *Energy and Environmental Profile of the U.S. Iron and Steel Industry* (DOE 2000). Data on natural gas consumption and coke oven gas production at merchant coke plants were not available and were excluded from the emission estimate. Carbon contents for coking coal, metallurgical coke, coal tar, coke oven gas, and blast furnace gas were provided by the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). The carbon content for coke breeze was assumed to equal the carbon content of coke.

Table 4-62: Production and Consumption Data for the Calculation of CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Metallurgical Coke Production (Thousand Metric Tons)

Source/Activity Data	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Metallurgical Coke Production							
Coking Coal Consumption at Coke Plants	35,269	21,259	20,022	13,904	19,135	19,445	18,825
Coke Production at Coke Plants	25,054	15,167	14,194	10,109	13,628	13,989	13,764
Coal Breeze Production	2,645	1,594	1,502	1,043	1,435	1,458	1,412
Coal Tar Production	1,058	638	601	417	574	583	565

Table 4-63: Production and Consumption Data for the Calculation of CO₂ Emissions from Metallurgical Coke Production (million ft³)

Source/Activity Data	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Metallurgical Coke Production							
Coke Oven Gas Production	250,767	114,213	103,191	66,155	95,405	109,044	113,772
Natural Gas Consumption	599	2,996	3,134	2,121	3,108	3,175	3,267
Blast Furnace Gas Consumption	24,602	4,460	4,829	2,435	3,181	3,853	4,351

Iron and Steel Production

Emissions of CO₂ from sinter production and direct reduced iron production were estimated by multiplying total national sinter production and the total national direct reduced iron production by Tier 1 CO₂ emission factors (see Table 4-64). Because estimates of sinter production and direct reduced iron production were not available, production was assumed to equal consumption.

Table 4-64: CO₂ Emission Factors for Sinter Production and Direct Reduced Iron Production

Material Produced	Metric Ton CO ₂ /Metric Ton
Sinter	0.2
Direct Reduced Iron	0.7

Source: IPCC 2006, Table 4.1.

To estimate emissions from pig iron production in the blast furnace, the amount of carbon contained in the produced pig iron and blast furnace gas were deducted from the amount of carbon contained in inputs (i.e., metallurgical coke, sinter, natural ore, pellets, natural gas, fuel oil, coke oven gas, and direct coal injection). The carbon contained in the pig iron, blast furnace gas, and blast furnace inputs was estimated by multiplying the material-specific carbon content by each material type (see Table 4-65). Carbon in blast furnace gas used to pre-heat the blast furnace air is combusted to form CO₂ during this process.

Emissions from steel production in EAFs were estimated by deducting the carbon contained in the steel produced from the carbon contained in the EAF anode, charge carbon, and scrap steel added to the EAF. Small amounts of carbon from direct reduced iron, pig iron, and flux additions to the EAFs were also included in the EAF calculation. For BOFs, estimates of carbon contained in BOF steel were deducted from carbon contained in inputs such as natural gas, coke oven gas, fluxes, and pig iron. In each case, the carbon was calculated by multiplying material-specific carbon contents by each material type (see Table 4-65). For EAFs, the amount of EAF anode consumed was approximated by multiplying total EAF steel production by the amount of EAF anode consumed per metric ton of steel produced (0.002 metric tons EAF anode per metric ton steel produced [AISI 2008b]). The amount of flux (e.g., limestone and dolomite) used during steel manufacture was deducted from the Other Process Uses of Carbonates source category to avoid double-counting.

CO₂ emissions from the consumption of blast furnace gas and coke oven gas for other activities occurring at the steel mill were estimated by multiplying the amount of these materials consumed for these purposes by the material-specific carbon content (see Table 4-65).

CO₂ emissions associated with the sinter production, direct reduced iron production, pig iron production, steel production, and other steel mill activities were summed to calculate the total CO₂ emissions from iron and steel production (see Table 4-57 and Table 4-58).

Table 4-65: Material Carbon Contents for Iron and Steel Production

Material	kg C/kg
Coke	0.83
Direct Reduced Iron	0.02
Dolomite	0.13
EAF Carbon Electrodes	0.82
EAF Charge Carbon	0.83
Limestone	0.12
Pig Iron	0.04
Steel	0.01
Material	kg C/GJ
Coke Oven Gas	12.1
Blast Furnace Gas	70.8

Source: IPCC 2006, Table 4.3. Coke Oven Gas and Blast Furnace Gas, Table 1.3.

The production processes for sinter and pig iron result in fugitive emissions of CH₄, which are emitted via leaks in the production equipment, rather than through the emission stacks or vents of the production plants. The fugitive emissions were calculated by applying Tier 1 emission factors taken from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) for sinter production and the *1995 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1995) (see

) for pig iron production. The production of direct reduced iron also results in emissions of CH₄ through the consumption of fossil fuels (e.g., natural gas); however, these emissions estimates are excluded due to data limitations.

Table 4-66: CH₄ Emission Factors for Sinter and Pig Iron Production

Material Produced	Factor	Unit
Pig Iron	0.9	g CH ₄ /kg
Sinter	0.07	kg CH ₄ /metric ton

Source: Sinter (IPCC 2006, Table 4.2), Pig Iron (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1995, Table 2.2)

Sinter consumption data were obtained from AISI's *Annual Statistical Report* (AISI 2004 through 2013a) and through personal communications with AISI (2008b) (see Table 4-67). In general, direct reduced iron (DRI) consumption data were obtained from the *USGS Minerals Yearbook – Iron and Steel Scrap* (USGS 1991 through 2012) and personal communication with the USGS Iron and Steel Commodity Specialist (Fenton 2013). However, data for DRI consumed in EAFs were not available for the years 1990 and 1991. EAF DRI consumption in 1990 and 1991 was calculated by multiplying the total DRI consumption for all furnaces by the EAF share of total DRI consumption in 1992. Also, data for DRI consumed in BOFs were not available for the years 1990 through 1993. BOF DRI consumption in 1990 through 1993 was calculated by multiplying the total DRI consumption for all furnaces (excluding EAFs and cupola) by the BOF share of total DRI consumption (excluding EAFs and cupola) in 1994.

The Tier 1 CO₂ emission factors for sinter production and direct reduced iron production were obtained through the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). Data for pig iron production, coke, natural gas, fuel oil, sinter, and pellets consumed in the blast furnace; pig iron production; and blast furnace gas produced at the iron and steel mill and used in the metallurgical coke ovens and other steel mill activities were obtained from AISI's *Annual Statistical Report* (AISI 2004 through 2013a) and through personal communications with AISI (2008b) (see Table 4-68).

Data for EAF steel production, flux, EAF charge carbon, and natural gas consumption were obtained from AISI's *Annual Statistical Report* (AISI 2004 through 2013a) and through personal communications with AISI (2013b and 2008b). The factor for the quantity of EAF anode consumed per ton of EAF steel produced was provided by AISI (AISI 2008b). Data for BOF steel production, flux, natural gas, natural ore, pellet sinter consumption as well as BOF steel production were obtained from AISI's *Annual Statistical Report* (AISI 2004 through 2013a) and through personal communications with AISI (2008b). Data for EAF and BOF scrap steel, pig iron, and DRI consumption were obtained from the *USGS Minerals Yearbook – Iron and Steel Scrap* (USGS 1991 through 2012). Data on coke oven gas and blast furnace gas consumed at the iron and steel mill (other than in the EAF, BOF, or blast furnace) were obtained from AISI's *Annual Statistical Report* (AISI 2004 through 2013a) and through personal communications with AISI (2008b).

Data on blast furnace gas and coke oven gas sold for use as synthetic natural gas were obtained from EIA's *Natural Gas Annual 2011* (EIA 2012b). Carbon contents for direct reduced iron, EAF carbon electrodes, EAF charge carbon, limestone, dolomite, pig iron, and steel were provided by the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). The carbon contents for natural gas, fuel oil, and direct injection coal were obtained from EIA (2012c) and EPA (2010). Heat contents for the same fuels were obtained from EIA (1992, 2012a). Heat contents for coke oven gas and blast furnace gas were provided in Table 2-2 of the report *Energy and Environmental Profile of the U.S. Iron and Steel Industry* (DOE 2000).

Table 4-67: Production and Consumption Data for the Calculation of CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (Thousand Metric Tons)

Source/Activity Data	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Sinter Production							
Sinter Production	12,239	8,315	6,497	3,814	5,225	5,941	5,795
Direct Reduced Iron Production							
Direct Reduced Iron Production	498	962	1,210	824	1,100	1,270	1,620
Pig Iron Production							
Coke Consumption	24,946	13,832	14,251	8,572	10,883	11,962	9,571

Pig Iron Production	49,669	37,222	33,730	19,019	26,844	30,228	32,063
Direct Injection Coal Consumption	1,485	2,573	2,578	1,674	2,279	2,604	2,802
EAF Steel Production							
EAF Anode and Charge Carbon Consumption	67	1,127	1,109	845	1,189	1,257	1,318
Scrap Steel Consumption	42,691	46,600	50,500	43,200	47,500	50,500	50,900
Flux Consumption	319	695	680	476	640	726	748
EAF Steel Production	33,511	52,194	52,791	36,725	49,339	52,108	52,415
BOF Steel Production							
Pig Iron Consumption	47,307	34,400	30,600	25,900	31,200	31,300	31,500
Scrap Steel Consumption	14,713	11,400	8,890	7,110	9,860	8,800	8,350
Flux Consumption	576	582	431	318	431	454	476
BOF Steel Production	43,973	42,705	39,105	22,659	31,158	34,291	36,282

Table 4-68: Production and Consumption Data for the Calculation of CO₂ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production (million ft³ unless otherwise specified)

Source/Activity Data	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Pig Iron Production							
Natural Gas Consumption	56,273	59,844	53,349	35,933	47,814	59,132	62,469
Fuel Oil Consumption (thousand gallons)	163,397	16,170	55,552	23,179	27,505	21,378	19,240
Coke Oven Gas Consumption	22,033	16,557	15,336	9,951	14,233	17,772	18,608
Blast Furnace Gas Production	1,439,380	1,299,980	1,104,674	672,486	911,180	1,063,326	1,139,578
EAF Steel Production							
Natural Gas Consumption	15,905	19,985	10,826	7,848	10,403	6,263	11,145
BOF Steel Production							
Coke Oven Gas Consumption	3,851	524	528	373	546	554	568
Other Activities							
Coke Oven Gas Consumption	224,883	97,132	87,327	55,831	80,626	90,718	94,596
Blast Furnace Gas Consumption	1,414,778	1,295,520	1,099,845	670,051	907,999	1,059,473	1,135,227

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The estimates of CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from metallurgical coke production are based on material production and consumption data and average carbon contents. Uncertainty is associated with the total U.S. coking coal consumption, total U.S. coke production and materials consumed during this process. Data for coking coal consumption and metallurgical coke production are from different data sources (EIA) than data for other carbonaceous materials consumed at coke plants (AISI), which does not include data for merchant coke plants. There is uncertainty associated with the fact that coal tar and coke breeze production were estimated based on coke production because coal tar and coke breeze production data were not available. Since merchant coke plant data is not included in the estimate of other carbonaceous materials consumed at coke plants, the mass balance equation for CO₂ from metallurgical coke production cannot be reasonably completed. Therefore, for the purpose of this analysis, uncertainty parameters are applied to primary data inputs to the calculation (i.e., coking coal consumption and metallurgical coke production) only.

The estimates of CO₂ emissions from iron and steel production are based on material production and consumption data and average carbon contents. There is uncertainty associated with the assumption that direct reduced iron and sinter consumption are equal to production. There is uncertainty associated with the assumption that all coal used for purposes other than coking coal is for direct injection coal; some of this coal may be used for electricity

generation. There is also uncertainty associated with the carbon contents for pellets, sinter, and natural ore, which are assumed to equal the carbon contents of direct reduced iron. For EAF steel production, there is uncertainty associated with the amount of EAF anode and charge carbon consumed due to inconsistent data throughout the time series. Also for EAF steel production, there is uncertainty associated with the assumption that 100 percent of the natural gas attributed to “steelmaking furnaces” by AISI is process-related and nothing is combusted for energy purposes. Uncertainty is also associated with the use of process gases such as blast furnace gas and coke oven gas. Data are not available to differentiate between the use of these gases for processes at the steel mill versus for energy generation (i.e., electricity and steam generation); therefore, all consumption is attributed to iron and steel production. These data and carbon contents produce a relatively accurate estimate of CO₂ emissions. However, there are uncertainties associated with each.

For the purposes of the CH₄ calculation from iron and steel production it is assumed that all of the CH₄ escapes as fugitive emissions and that none of the CH₄ is captured in stacks or vents. Additionally, the CO₂ emissions calculation is not corrected by subtracting the carbon content of the CH₄, which means there may be a slight double counting of carbon as both CO₂ and CH₄.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-69 for metallurgical coke production and iron and steel production. Total CO₂ emissions from metallurgical coke production and iron and steel production were estimated to be between 45.4 and 63.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 16 percent below and 17 percent above the emission estimate of 54.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. Total CH₄ emissions from metallurgical coke production and iron and steel production were estimated to be between 0.5 and 0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 21 percent below and 22 percent above the emission estimate of 0.6 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-69: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Iron and Steel Production and Metallurgical Coke Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Metallurgical Coke & Iron and Steel Production	CO ₂	54.3	45.4	63.7	-16%	+17%
Metallurgical Coke & Iron and Steel Production	CH ₄	0.6	0.5	0.8	-21%	+22%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements involve evaluating and analyzing data reported under EPA’s GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Iron and Steel Production source category. Particular attention would be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA’s GHGRP, with the program’s initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA’s GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹⁴⁴

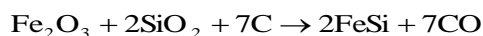
¹⁴⁴ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

Additional improvements include accounting for emission estimates for the production of metallurgical coke to the Energy chapter as well as identifying the amount of carbonaceous materials, other than coking coal, consumed at merchant coke plants. Other potential improvements include identifying the amount of coal used for direct injection and the amount of coke breeze, coal tar, and light oil produced during coke production. Efforts will also be made to identify inputs for preparing Tier 2 estimates for sinter and direct reduced iron production, as well as identifying information to better characterize emissions from the use of process gases and fuels within the Energy and Industrial Processes chapters.

4.16 Ferroalloy Production (IPCC Source Category 2C2)

Carbon dioxide and CH₄ are emitted from the production of several ferroalloys. Ferroalloys are composites of iron (Fe) and other elements such as silicon (Si), manganese (Mn), and chromium (Cr). Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of ferroalloys are accounted for in the Energy chapter. Emissions from the production of two types of ferrosilicon (25 to 55 percent and 56 to 95 percent silicon), silicon metal (96 to 99 percent silicon), and miscellaneous alloys (32 to 65 percent silicon) have been calculated. Emissions from the production of ferrochromium and ferromanganese are not included here because of the small number of manufacturers of these materials in the United States, and therefore, government information disclosure rules prevent the publication of production data for these production facilities.

Similar to emissions from the production of iron and steel, CO₂ is emitted when metallurgical coke is oxidized during a high-temperature reaction with iron and the selected alloying element. Due to the strong reducing environment, CO is initially produced, and eventually oxidized to CO₂. A representative reaction equation for the production of 50 percent ferrosilicon (FeSi) is given below:



While most of the carbon contained in the process materials is released to the atmosphere as CO₂, a percentage is also released as CH₄ and other volatiles. The amount of CH₄ that is released is dependent on furnace efficiency, operation technique, and control technology.

When incorporated in alloy steels, ferroalloys are used to alter the material properties of the steel. Ferroalloys are used primarily by the iron and steel industry, and production trends closely follow that of the iron and steel industry. Fewer than 10 facilities in the United States produce ferroalloys.

Emissions of CO₂ from ferroalloy production in 2012 were 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,663 Gg) (see Table 4-70 and Table 4-71), which is a 23 percent reduction since 1990. Emissions of CH₄ from ferroalloy production in 2012 were 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.5 Gg), which is a 31 percent decrease since 1990.

Table 4-70: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Ferroalloy Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
CH ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	2.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-71: CO₂ and CH₄ Emissions from Ferroalloy Production (Gg)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	2,152	1,392	1,599	1,469	1,663	1,663	1,663
CH ₄	1	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg CO₂ Eq.

Methodology

Emissions of CO₂ and CH₄ from ferroalloy production were calculated using a Tier 1 method from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) by multiplying annual ferroalloy production by material-specific default emission factors provided by IPCC (2006). Default emission factors were used because country-specific emission factors are not currently available.

For ferrosilicon alloys containing 25 to 55 percent silicon and miscellaneous alloys (including primarily magnesium-ferrosilicon, but also including other silicon alloys) containing 32 to 65 percent silicon, an emission factor for 45 percent silicon was applied for CO₂ (i.e., 2.5 metric tons CO₂/metric ton of alloy produced) and an emission factor for 65 percent silicon was applied for CH₄ (i.e., 1 kg CH₄/metric ton of alloy produced). Additionally, for ferrosilicon alloys containing 56 to 95 percent silicon, an emission factor for 75 percent silicon ferrosilicon was applied for both CO₂ and CH₄ (i.e., 4 metric tons CO₂/metric ton alloy produced and 1 kg CH₄/metric ton of alloy produced, respectively). The emission factors for silicon metal equaled 5 metric tons CO₂/metric ton metal produced and 1.2 kg CH₄/metric ton metal produced. It was assumed that 100 percent of the ferroalloy production was produced using petroleum coke in an electric arc furnace process (IPCC 2006), although some ferroalloys may have been produced with coking coal, wood, other biomass, or graphite carbon inputs. The amount of petroleum coke consumed in ferroalloy production was calculated assuming that the petroleum coke used is 90 percent C and 10 percent inert material (Onder and Bagdoyan 1993).

Ferroalloy production data for 1990 through 2010 (see Table 4-72) were obtained from the USGS through personal communications with the USGS Silicon Commodity Specialist (Corathers 2011, Corathers 2012) and through the *Minerals Yearbook: Silicon Annual Report* (USGS 1996 through 2012). Due to the small number of ferroalloy manufacturers in the United States and government information disclosure rules, USGS does not provide estimates of ferrosilicon production for 2011 or 2012; therefore, 2010 production data are used as proxy in 2011 and 2012. Likewise, because USGS does not provide estimates of silicon metal production for 2006 through 2011, 2005 production data are used. Until 1999, the USGS reported production of ferrosilicon containing 25 to 55 percent silicon separately from production of miscellaneous alloys containing 32 to 65 percent silicon; however, beginning in 1999, the USGS reported these as a single category. The composition data for petroleum coke was obtained from Onder and Bagdoyan (1993).

Table 4-72: Production of Ferroalloys (Metric Tons)

Year	Ferrosilicon 25%-55%	Ferrosilicon 56%-95%	Silicon Metal	Misc. Alloys 32-65%
1990	321,385	109,566	145,744	72,442
2005	123,000	86,100	148,000	NA
2008	193,000	94,000	148,000	NA
2009	123,932	104,855	148,000	NA
2010	153,000	135,000	148,000	NA
2011	153,000	135,000	148,000	NA
2012	153,000	135,000	148,000	NA

NA (Not Available)

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Annual ferroalloy production is currently reported by the USGS in three broad categories: ferroalloys containing 25 to 55 percent silicon (including miscellaneous alloys), ferroalloys containing 56 to 95 percent silicon, and silicon metal (through 2005 only). Silicon metal production values for 2006 through 2012 are assumed to be equal to the 2005 value reported by USGS (USGS did not report silicon metal production for 2006 through 2012). Ferrosilicon production values for 2011 and 2012 are assumed to be equal to the 2010 value reported by USGS (USGS did not report ferrosilicon production for 2011 and 2012). It was assumed that the IPCC emission factors apply to all of the ferroalloy production processes, including miscellaneous alloys. Finally, production data for silvery pig iron (alloys containing less than 25 percent silicon) are not reported by the USGS to avoid disclosing proprietary company data. Emissions from this production category, therefore, were not estimated.

Also, some ferroalloys may be produced using wood or other biomass as a primary or secondary carbon source (carbonaceous reductants), information and data regarding these practices were not available. Emissions from ferroalloys produced with wood or other biomass would not be counted under this source because wood-based carbon is of biogenic origin.¹⁴⁵ Even though emissions from ferroalloys produced with coking coal or graphite inputs would be counted in national trends, they may be generated with varying amounts of CO₂ per unit of ferroalloy produced. The most accurate method for these estimates would be to base calculations on the amount of reducing agent used in the process, rather than the amount of ferroalloys produced. These data, however, were not available, and are also often considered confidential business information.

Emissions of CH₄ from ferroalloy production will vary depending on furnace specifics, such as type, operation technique, and control technology. Higher heating temperatures and techniques such as sprinkle charging will reduce CH₄ emissions; however, specific furnace information was not available or included in the CH₄ emission estimates.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-73. Ferroalloy production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 1.5 and 1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 12 percent below and 12 percent above the emission estimate of 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. Ferroalloy production CH₄ emissions were estimated to be between a range of approximately 11 percent below and 11 percent above the emission estimate of 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-73: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Ferroalloy Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ferroalloy Production	CO ₂	1.7	1.5	1.9	-12%	+12%
Ferroalloy Production	CH ₄	+	+	+	-11%	+11%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

According to the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006), emission factors are provided for a total of nine different ferroalloy types: four grades of ferrosilicon (FeSi) (i.e., 45, 65, 75, and 90 percent Si), two grades of ferromanganese (FeMn) (i.e., 1 and 7 percent C), silicomanganese (SiMn), ferrochromium (FeCr), and silicon metal. However, due to the small number of ferroalloy manufacturers in the United States and government information disclosure rules, the current availability of ferroalloy production data is quite limited (Tuck 2013). Additional research is being conducting to assess the feasibility of obtaining alternative activity data.

Future improvements involve evaluating and analyzing data reported under EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Ferroalloy Production source category. Particular attention would be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data

¹⁴⁵ Emissions and sinks of biogenic carbon are accounted for in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter.

from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹⁴⁶

4.17 Aluminum Production (IPCC Source Category 2C3)

Aluminum is a light-weight, malleable, and corrosion-resistant metal that is used in many manufactured products, including aircraft, automobiles, bicycles, and kitchen utensils. As of last reporting, the United States was the fourth largest producer of primary aluminum, with approximately 5 percent of the world total (USGS 2013a). The United States was also a major importer of primary aluminum. The production of primary aluminum—in addition to consuming large quantities of electricity—results in process-related emissions of CO₂ and two perfluorocarbons (PFCs): perfluoromethane (CF₄) and perfluoroethane (C₂F₆).

CO₂ is emitted during the aluminum smelting process when alumina (aluminum oxide, Al₂O₃) is reduced to aluminum using the Hall-Heroult reduction process. The reduction of the alumina occurs through electrolysis in a molten bath of natural or synthetic cryolite (Na₃AlF₆). The reduction cells contain a carbon lining that serves as the cathode. Carbon is also contained in the anode, which can be a carbon mass of paste, coke briquettes, or prebaked carbon blocks from petroleum coke. During reduction, most of this carbon is oxidized and released to the atmosphere as CO₂.

Process emissions of CO₂ from aluminum production were estimated to be 3.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3,439 Gg) in 2012 (see Table 4-74). The carbon anodes consumed during aluminum production consist of petroleum coke and, to a minor extent, coal tar pitch. The petroleum coke portion of the total CO₂ process emissions from aluminum production is considered to be a non-energy use of petroleum coke, and is accounted for here and not under the CO₂ from Fossil Fuel Combustion source category of the Energy sector. Similarly, the coal tar pitch portion of these CO₂ process emissions is accounted for here.

Table 4-74: CO₂ Emissions from Aluminum Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	6.8	6,831
2005	4.1	4,142
2008	4.5	4,477
2009	3.0	3,009
2010	2.7	2,722
2011	3.3	3,292
2012	3.4	3,439

In addition to CO₂ emissions, the aluminum production industry is also a source of PFC emissions. During the smelting process, when the alumina ore content of the electrolytic bath falls below critical levels required for electrolysis, rapid voltage increases occur, which are termed “anode effects.” These anode effects cause carbon from the anode and fluorine from the dissociated molten cryolite bath to combine, thereby producing fugitive emissions of CF₄ and C₂F₆. In general, the magnitude of emissions for a given smelter and level of production depends on the frequency and duration of these anode effects. As the frequency and duration of the anode effects increase, emissions increase.

Since 1990, emissions of CF₄ and C₂F₆ have declined by 87 percent and 81 percent, respectively, to 2.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. of CF₄ (0.31 Gg) and 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. of C₂F₆ (0.056 Gg) in 2012, as shown in Table 4-75 and Table 4-76. This

¹⁴⁶ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

decline is due both to reductions in domestic aluminum production and to actions taken by aluminum smelting companies to reduce the frequency and duration of anode effects. These actions include technology and operational changes such as employee training, use of computer monitoring, and changes in alumina feeding techniques. Since 1990, aluminum production has declined by 49 percent, while the combined CF₄ and C₂F₆ emission rate (per metric ton of aluminum produced) has been reduced by 73 percent. Emissions declined by approximately 15 percent between 2011 and 2012 due to a reduction in both CF₄ and C₂F₆ emissions per metric ton of aluminum produced.

Table 4-75: PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	CF ₄	C ₂ F ₆	Total
1990	15.8	2.7	18.4
2005	2.5	0.4	3.0
2008	2.2	0.5	2.7
2009	1.3	0.3	1.6
2010	1.2	0.4	1.6
2011	2.3	0.6	2.9
2012	2.0	0.5	2.5

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-76: PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (Gg)

Year	CF ₄	C ₂ F ₆
1990	2.4	0.3
2005	0.4	+
2008	0.3	0.1
2009	0.2	+
2010	0.2	+
2011	0.4	0.1
2012	0.3	0.1

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Gg.

In 2012, U.S. primary aluminum production totaled approximately 2.1 million metric tons, a 4 percent increase from 2011 production levels (USAA 2013a). In 2012, five companies managed production at ten operational primary aluminum smelters. Four smelters were closed for the entire year in 2012 (USGS 2013b). During 2012, monthly U.S. primary aluminum production was greater in the first three quarters of 2012, but less in the October–December quarter when compared to the corresponding quarters in 2011 (USAA 2013a).

For 2013, total production was approximately 1.9 million metric tons compared to 2.1 million metric tons in 2012, a 6 percent decrease (USAA 2013b). Based on the decrease in production, process CO₂ and PFC emissions are likely to be lower in 2013 compared to 2012 if there are no significant changes in process controls at operational facilities.

Methodology

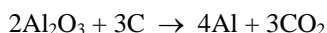
Process CO₂ and perfluorocarbon (PFC)—i.e., perfluoromethane (CF₄) and perfluoroethane (C₂F₆)—emission estimates from primary aluminum production for 2010, 2011, and 2012 are reported in the EPA’s GHGRP database. Under EPA’s GHGRP, facilities began reporting primary aluminum production process emissions (for 2010) in 2011; as a result, GHGRP data (for 2010, 2011, and 2012) are available to be incorporated into the inventory. EPA’s GHGRP mandates that all facilities that contain an aluminum production process must report: CF₄ and C₂F₆ emissions from anode effects in all prebake and Søderberg electrolysis cells, carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from anode consumption during electrolysis in all prebake and Søderberg cells, and all CO₂ emissions from onsite anode baking. To estimate the process emissions, EPA’s GHGRP uses the process-specific equations (and certain technology-specific defaults) detailed in subpart F. These equations are based on the Tier 2/Tier 3 IPCC (2006)

methods for primary aluminum production, and Tier 1 methods when estimating missing data elements. It should be noted that the same methods (i.e., IPCC 2006) were used for estimating the emissions prior to the availability of the reported GHGRP data in the inventory.

Process CO₂ Emissions from Anode Consumption and Anode Baking

CO₂ emission estimates for the years prior to the introduction of EPA's GHGRP in 2010 were estimated with IPCC (2006) methods, but individual facility reported data were combined with process-specific emissions modeling. These estimates were based on information previously gathered from EPA's VAIP program, U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) Mineral Commodity reviews, and The Aluminum Association (USAA) statistics, among other sources. Since pre- and post-GHGRP estimates use the same methodology, emission estimates are comparable across the time series.

Most of the CO₂ emissions released during aluminum production occur during the electrolysis reaction of the carbon anode, as described by the following reaction:



For prebake smelter technologies, CO₂ is also emitted during the anode baking process. These emissions can account for approximately 10 percent of total process CO₂ emissions from prebake smelters.

Depending on the availability of smelter-specific data, the CO₂ emitted from electrolysis at each smelter was estimated from: (1) the smelter's annual anode consumption, (2) the smelter's annual aluminum production and rate of anode consumption (per ton of aluminum produced) for previous and/or following years, or, (3) the smelter's annual aluminum production and IPCC default CO₂ emission factors. The first approach tracks the consumption and carbon content of the anode, assuming that all carbon in the anode is converted to CO₂. Sulfur, ash, and other impurities in the anode are subtracted from the anode consumption to arrive at a C consumption figure. This approach corresponds to either the IPCC Tier 2 or Tier 3 method, depending on whether smelter-specific data on anode impurities are used. The second approach interpolates smelter-specific anode consumption rates to estimate emissions during years for which anode consumption data are not available. This approach avoids substantial errors and discontinuities that could be introduced by reverting to Tier 1 methods for those years. The last approach corresponds to the IPCC Tier 1 method (2006), and is used in the absence of present or historic anode consumption data.

The equations used to estimate CO₂ emissions in the Tier 2 and 3 methods vary depending on smelter type (IPCC 2006). For Prebake cells, the process formula accounts for various parameters, including net anode consumption, and the sulfur, ash, and impurity content of the baked anode. For anode baking emissions, the formula accounts for packing coke consumption, the sulfur and ash content of the packing coke, as well as the pitch content and weight of baked anodes produced. For Söderberg cells, the process formula accounts for the weight of paste consumed per metric ton of aluminum produced, and pitch properties, including sulfur, hydrogen, and ash content.

Through the VAIP, anode consumption (and some anode impurity) data have been reported for 1990, 2000, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, and 2009. Where available, smelter-specific process data reported under the VAIP were used; however, if the data were incomplete or unavailable, information was supplemented using industry average values recommended by IPCC (2006). Smelter-specific CO₂ process data were provided by 18 of the 23 operating smelters in 1990 and 2000, by 14 out of 16 operating smelters in 2003 and 2004, 14 out of 15 operating smelters in 2005, 13 out of 14 operating smelters in 2006, 5 out of 14 operating smelters in 2007 and 2008, and 3 out of 13 operating smelters in 2009. For years where CO₂ emissions data or CO₂ process data were not reported by these companies, estimates were developed through linear interpolation, and/or assuming representative (e.g., previously reported or industry default) values.

In the absence of any previous historical smelter specific process data (i.e., 1 out of 13 smelters in 2009, 1 out of 14 smelters in 2006, 2007, and 2008, 1 out of 15 smelters in 2005, and 5 out of 23 smelters between 1990 and 2003), CO₂ emission estimates were estimated using Tier 1 Söderberg and/or Prebake emission factors (metric ton of CO₂ per metric ton of aluminum produced) from IPCC (2006).

Process PFC Emissions from Anode Effects

Smelter-specific PFC emissions from aluminum production for 2010, 2011, and 2012 were reported to EPA under its GHGRP. To estimate their PFC emissions and report them under EPA's GHGRP, smelters use an approach identical to the Tier 3 approach in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*. Specifically, they use a smelter-specific slope coefficient as well as smelter-specific operating data to estimate an emission factor using the following equation:

$$\text{PFC (CF}_4 \text{ or C}_2\text{F}_6\text{) kg/metric ton Al} = S \times (\text{Anode Effect Minutes/Cell-Day})$$

where,

$S = \text{Slope coefficient ((kg PFC/metric ton Al)/(Anode Effect Minutes/Cell-Day))}$

$(\text{Anode Effect Minutes/Cell-Day}) = (\text{Anode Effect Frequency/Cell-Day}) \times \text{Anode Effect Duration (minutes)}$

They then multiply this emission factor by aluminum production to estimate PFC emissions. All U.S. aluminum smelters are required to report their emissions under EPA's GHGRP.

PFC emissions for the years prior to 2010 were estimated using the same equation, but the slope-factor used for some smelters was technology-specific rather than smelter-specific, making the method a Tier 2 rather than a Tier 3 approach for those smelters. Emissions and background data were reported to EPA under the VAIP. For 1990 through 2009, smelter-specific slope coefficients were available and were used for smelters representing between 30 and 94 percent of U.S. primary aluminum production. The percentage changed from year to year as some smelters closed or changed hands and as the production at remaining smelters fluctuated. For smelters that did not report smelter-specific slope coefficients, IPCC technology-specific slope coefficients were applied (IPCC 2000, 2006). The slope coefficients were combined with smelter-specific anode effect data collected by aluminum companies and reported under the VAIP to estimate emission factors over time. For 1990 through 2009, smelter-specific anode effect data were available for smelters representing between 80 and 100 percent of U.S. primary aluminum production. Where smelter-specific anode effect data were not available, representative values (e.g., previously reported or industry averages) were used.

For all smelters, emission factors were multiplied by annual production to estimate annual emissions at the smelter level. For 1990 through 2009, smelter-specific production data were available for smelters representing between 30 and 100 percent of U.S. primary aluminum production. (For the years after 2000, this percentage was near the high end of the range.) Production at non-reporting smelters was estimated by calculating the difference between the production reported under VAIP and the total U.S. production supplied by USGS or USAA, and then allocating this difference to non-reporting smelters in proportion to their production capacity. Emissions were then aggregated across smelters to estimate national emissions.

Between 1990 and 2009, production data were provided under the VAIP by 21 of the 23 U.S. smelters that operated during at least part of that period. For the non-reporting smelters, production was estimated based on the difference between reporting smelters and national aluminum production levels (from USGS and USAA), with allocation to specific smelters based on reported production capacities (from USGS).

National primary aluminum production data for 2012 were obtained via The Aluminum Association (USAA 2013a). For 1990 through 2001, and 2006 (see Table 4-77) data were obtained from USGS, Mineral Industry Surveys: Aluminum Annual Report (USGS 1995, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2007). For 2002 through 2005, and 2007 through 2011, national aluminum production data were obtained from the USAA's Primary Aluminum Statistics (USAA 2004, 2005, 2006, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012).

Table 4-77: Production of Primary Aluminum (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	4,048
2005	2,478
2008	2,659
2009	1,727
2010	1,727
2011	1,986
2012	2,070

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

Uncertainty was assigned to the CO₂, CF₄, and C₂F₆ emission values reported by each individual facility to EPA's GHGRP. As previously mentioned, the methods for estimating emissions for EPA's GHGRP and this report are the same, and follow the IPCC (2006) methodology. As a result, it was possible to assign uncertainty bounds (and distributions) based on an analysis of the uncertainty associated with the facility-specific emissions estimated for previous inventory years. Uncertainty surrounding the reported CO₂, CF₄, and C₂F₆ emission values were determined to have a normal distribution with uncertainty ranges of ±6, ±16, and ±20 percent, respectively. A Monte Carlo analysis was applied to estimate the overall uncertainty of the CO₂, CF₄, and C₂F₆ emission estimates for the U.S. aluminum industry as a whole, and the results are provided below.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-78. Aluminum production-related CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 3.4 and 3.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 2 percent below to 2 percent above the emission estimate of 3.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. Also, production-related CF₄ emissions were estimated to be between 1.9 and 2.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 6 percent below to 6 percent above the emission estimate of 2.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. Finally, aluminum production-related C₂F₆ emissions were estimated to be between 0.5 and 0.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 10 percent below to 10 percent above the emission estimate of 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-78: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ and PFC Emissions from Aluminum Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to 2012 Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Aluminum Production	CO ₂	3.4	3.4	3.5	-2%	+2%
Aluminum Production	CF ₄	2.0	1.9	2.1	-6%	+6%
Aluminum Production	C ₂ F ₆	0.5	0.5	0.6	-10%	+10%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

4.18 Magnesium Production and Processing (IPCC Source Category 2C4)

The magnesium metal production and casting industry uses sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) as a cover gas to prevent the rapid oxidation of molten magnesium in the presence of air. Sulfur hexafluoride has been used in this application around the world for more than twenty-five years. A dilute gaseous mixture of SF₆ with dry air and/or CO₂ is blown over molten magnesium metal to induce and stabilize the formation of a protective crust. A small portion of the SF₆ reacts with the magnesium to form a thin molecular film of mostly magnesium oxide and magnesium fluoride. The amount of SF₆ reacting in magnesium production and processing is considered to be negligible and thus all SF₆ used is assumed to be emitted into the atmosphere. Although alternative cover gases, such as AM-cover™ (containing HFC-134a), Novec™ 612 (FK-5-1-12) and dilute SO₂ systems can be used, many facilities in the United States are still using traditional SF₆ cover gas systems.

The magnesium industry emitted 1.71 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.07 Gg) of SF₆ in 2012, representing a decrease of approximately 41 percent from 2011 emissions (See Table 4-79). The decrease can be attributed to a decrease in consumption of primary magnesium for die casting and wrought casting in the United States (USGS 2012), and a reduction in sand casting SF₆ emissions between 2011 and 2012 as reported through EPA's GHGRP. The reduction in sand casting SF₆ emissions is likely due to decreased production from reporting facilities in 2012. The decrease in SF₆ emissions may also be attributed in part by continuing industry efforts to utilize SF₆ alternatives, such as Novec™612 and sulfur dioxide, to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

Table 4-79: SF₆ Emissions from Magnesium Production and Processing (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	5.5	+
2005	2.9	+
2008	1.9	+
2009	1.7	+
2010	2.2	+
2011	2.9	+
2012	1.7	+

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Methodology

Emission estimates for the magnesium industry incorporate information provided by some industry participants in EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for the Magnesium Industry as well as emissions data reported through subpart T (Magnesium Production and Processing) of the EPA's GHGRP. The Partnership started in 1999 and, in 2010, participating companies represented 100 percent of U.S. primary and secondary production and 16 percent of the casting sector production (i.e., die, sand, permanent mold, wrought, and anode casting). Emissions for 1999 through 2010 from primary production, secondary production (i.e., recycling), and die casting were generally reported by Partnership participants. Partners reported their SF₆ consumption, which was assumed to be equivalent to emissions. 2010 was the last reporting year under the Partnership. Emissions data for 2011 and 2012 were obtained through EPA's GHGRP. Under the program, owners or operators of facilities that have a magnesium production or casting process must report emissions from use of cover or carrier gases, which include SF₆, HFC-134a, FK 5-1-12 and CO₂. Consequently, emissions from magnesium production and processing were estimated for three time periods, depending on the source of the emissions data: 1990 through 1998, 1999 through 2010, and 2011 through 2012. The methodologies described below also make use of magnesium production data published by the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS).

1990 through 1998

To estimate emissions for 1990 through 1998, industry emission factors were multiplied by the corresponding metal production and consumption (casting) statistics from USGS.

Emission factors from 1990 through 1998 were based on a number of sources and assumptions. Emission factors for primary production were available from U.S. primary producers for 1994 and 1995. The primary production emission factors were 1.2 kg per metric ton for 1990 through 1993, and 1.1 kg per metric ton for 1994 through 1997. The emission factor for secondary production from 1990 through 1998 was assumed to be constant at the 1999 average Partner value. Emission factor for die casting of 4.1 kg SF₆ per metric ton was available for the mid-1990s from an international survey (Gjestland & Magers 1996) that was used for years 1990 through 1996. For 1996 through 1998, the emission factor for die casting was assumed to decline linearly to the level estimated based on Partner reports in 1999. This assumption is consistent with the trend in SF₆ sales to the magnesium sector that is reported in the RAND survey of major SF₆ manufacturers, which shows a decline of 70 percent from 1996 to 1999 (RAND 2002). Sand casting emission factors for 1990 through 2001 were assumed to be the same as the 2002 emission factor. The emission factors for the other processes (i.e., permanent mold, wrought, and anode casting), about which less is known, were assumed to remain constant at levels defined in Table 4-79.

1999 through 2010

The 1999 through 2010 emissions from primary and secondary production are based on information provided by EPA's industry Partners. In some instances, there were years of missing Partner data. For these situations, emissions were estimated through interpolation where possible, or by holding company-reported emissions (as well as production) constant from the previous year.

The die casting emission estimates for 1999 through 2010 are also based on information supplied by industry Partners. When a Partner was determined to be no longer in production, its metal production and emissions rates were set to zero. Missing data on emissions or metal input was either interpolated or held constant at the last available reported value. In 1999 and from 2008 through 2010, Partners did not account for all die casting tracked by USGS, and, therefore, it was necessary to estimate the emissions of die casters who were not Partners. For 1999, die casters who were not Partners were assumed to be similar to Partners who cast small parts. Due to process requirements, these casters consume larger quantities of SF₆ per metric ton of processed magnesium than casters that process large parts. Consequently, emission estimates from this group of die casters were developed using an average emission factor of 5.2 kg SF₆ per metric ton of magnesium. This emission factor was developed using magnesium production and SF₆ usage data for the year 1999. For 2008 through 2010, the characteristics of the die casters who were not Partners were not well known, and therefore the emission factor for these die casters was set equal to 3.0 kg SF₆ per metric ton of magnesium, the average of the emission factors reported over the same period by the die casters who were Partners.

The emissions from other casting operations were estimated by multiplying emission factors (kg SF₆ per metric ton of metal produced or processed) by the amount of metal produced or consumed from USGS, with the exception of some years for which Partner sand casting emissions data are available. The emission factors for sand casting activities were acquired through the data reported by the Partnership for 2002 to 2006. For 2007 through 2010, the sand casting Partner did not report and the reported emission factor from 2005 was applied to the Partner and to all other sand casters.

The emission factors for primary production, secondary production and sand casting are not published to protect company-specific production information. However, the emission factor for primary production has not risen above the average 1995 Partner value of 1.1 kg SF₆ per metric ton. The emission factors for the other industry sectors (i.e., permanent mold, wrought, and anode casting) were based on discussions with industry representatives. The emission factors for casting activities are provided below in Table 4-80.

Table 4-80: SF₆ Emission Factors (kg SF₆ per metric ton of magnesium)

Year	Die Casting	Permanent Mold	Wrought	Anodes
1999	2.14 ^a	2	1	1
2000	0.71	2	1	1
2001	0.71	2	1	1
2002	0.71	2	1	1

2003	0.81	2	1	1
2004	0.79	2	1	1
2005	0.77	2	1	1
2006	0.88	2	1	1
2007	0.64	2	1	1
2008	1.18	2	1	1
2009	2.43	2	1	1
2010	2.95	2	1	1

^a Weighted average that includes an estimated emission factor of 5.2 kg SF₆ per metric ton of magnesium for die casters that do not participate in the Partnership.

2011 through 2012

For 2011 and 2012, for the primary and secondary producers, GHGRP-reported SF₆ emissions data were used. For die and sand casting, some emissions data was obtained through EPA's GHGRP. The balance of the emissions for these industry segments were estimated based on previous Partner reporting (i.e., for Partners that did not report emissions through EPA's GHGRP) or were estimated by multiplying emission factors by the amount of metal produced or consumed. Partners who did not report through EPA's GHGRP were assumed to have continued to emit SF₆ at the last reported level, which was from 2010 in most cases. All Partners were assumed to have continued to consume magnesium at the last reported level. Where the total metal consumption estimated for the Partners fell below the U.S. total reported by USGS, the difference was multiplied by the emission factors discussed in the section above. For the other types of production and processing (i.e., permanent mold, wrought, and anode casting), emissions were estimated by multiplying the industry emission factors with the metal production or consumption statistics obtained from USGS.

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

To estimate the uncertainty surrounding the estimated 2012 SF₆ emissions from magnesium production and processing, the uncertainties associated with three variables were estimated: (1) emissions reported by magnesium producers and processors for 2012 through EPA's GHGRP, (2) emissions estimated for magnesium producers and processors that reported via the Partnership in prior years but did not report 2012 emissions through EPA's GHGRP, and (3) emissions estimated for magnesium producers and processors that did not participate in the Partnership or report through EPA's GHGRP. An uncertainty of 5 percent was assigned to the SF₆ emissions (usage) data reported by each GHGRP reporter (per the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*). If facilities did not report emissions data during the current reporting year through EPA's GHGRP reporting program, SF₆ emissions data were held constant at the most recent available value reported through the Partnership. The uncertainty associated with these values was estimated to be 30 percent for each year of extrapolation. One known sand caster (the lone Partner) has not reported since 2007 and its activity and emission factor were held constant at 2005 levels due to a reporting anomaly in 2006 because of malfunctions at the facility. The uncertainty associated with the SF₆ usage for the sand casting Partner was 74 percent. For those industry processes that are not represented in Partnership, such as permanent mold and wrought casting, SF₆ emissions were estimated using production and consumption statistics reported by USGS and estimated process-specific emission factors (see Table 4-81). The uncertainties associated with the emission factors and USGS-reported statistics were assumed to be 75 percent and 25 percent, respectively. Emissions associated with die casting and sand casting activities utilized emission factors based on Partner reported data with an uncertainties of 75 percent. In general, where precise quantitative information was not available on the uncertainty of a parameter, a conservative (upper-bound) value was used.

Additional uncertainties exist in these estimates that are not addressed in this methodology, such as the basic assumption that SF₆ neither reacts nor decomposes during use. The melt surface reactions and high temperatures associated with molten magnesium could potentially cause some gas degradation. Previous measurement studies have identified SF₆ cover gas degradation in die casting applications on the order of 20 percent (Bartos et al. 2007). Sulfur hexafluoride may also be used as a cover gas for the casting of molten aluminum with high magnesium content; however, the extent to which this technique is used in the United States is unknown.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-81. SF₆ emissions associated with magnesium production and processing were estimated to be between 1.5 and 1.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent

confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 11 percent below to 12 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. The uncertainty estimates for 2012 are higher relative to the uncertainty reported in the 2011 inventory year which is due to the relatively large share of die casting not represented through EPA's GHGRP.

Table 4-81: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for SF₆ Emissions from Magnesium Production and Processing (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Magnesium Production	SF ₆	1.7	1.5	1.9	-11%	+12%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

The USGS 2012 Mineral Yearbook for Magnesium showed a revision in its estimate of permanent mold and wrought casting production of magnesium for 2011 in the United States, revising its previous estimate of 336 and 3,580 metric tons in 2011 to 193 and 3,720 metric tons, respectively.

The SF₆ emissions estimation methodologies for the year 2011 for die casting, sand casting, and primary and secondary production were also revised to incorporate newly available data from subpart T of EPA's GHGRP. The emission estimation method required by subpart T of EPA's GHGRP is the same method that Partners use to estimate emissions when reporting in previous Inventories. Therefore, the use of the new data did not create any time series consistency issues.

For the 1999 through 2010 time period, a methodological change was introduced for die casting in situations where Partners failed to report for a particular year or years. In the current Inventory, the missing emissions or activity data were estimated though either interpolation or through extrapolation by holding the Partner's emissions and activity constant. In previous Inventories, the missing data were estimated using an average industry growth rate.

Lastly, due to the methodological change above, the metal consumption levels estimated for die casting Partners fell below those reported to and estimated by USGS from 2008 through 2012. This difference is not surprising because USGS reporting and estimates account for a larger set of die casting facilities than do EPA estimates. To account for emissions from the facilities that were not EPA Partners, the difference between the EPA and USGS estimates was multiplied by an average emission factor, as described above.

Planned Improvements

In a future inventory report, emissions data for alternative cover gases and carrier gases (e.g., CO₂) could be incorporated, as this information is now available from EPA's GHGRP. The alternative cover gases have lower GWPs than SF₆, and tend to quickly degrade during their exposure to the molten metal. Magnesium producers and processors have already begun using these cover gases starting in around 2006; because the amounts being used by companies on the whole are low enough that they have a minor effect on the overall emissions from the industry, and the data being collected from EPA's GHGRP for these cover gases is a relatively new type of information for reporters to collect, these emissions are only being monitored and recorded at this time as opposed to being included in Inventory estimates.

In addition, cover gas research conducted over the last decade has found that SF₆ used for magnesium melt protection can have degradation rates on the order of 20 percent in die casting applications (Bartos et al. 2007). Current emission estimates assume (per the 2006 IPCC Guidelines) that all SF₆ utilized is emitted to the atmosphere.

Additional research may lead to a revision of IPCC Guidelines to reflect this phenomenon and until such time, developments in this sector will be monitored for possible application to the inventory methodology.

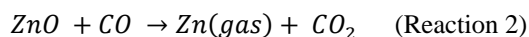
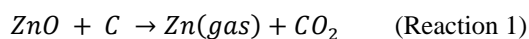
4.19 Zinc Production (IPCC Source Category 2C5)

Zinc production in the United States consists of both primary and secondary processes. Of the primary and secondary processes used in the United States, only the electrothermic and Waelz kiln secondary processes result in non-energy CO₂ emissions (Viklund-White 2000). Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of zinc are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

The majority of zinc produced in the United States is used for galvanizing. Galvanizing is a process where zinc coating is applied to steel in order to prevent corrosion. Zinc is used extensively for galvanizing operations in the automotive and construction industry. Zinc is also used in the production of zinc alloys and brass and bronze alloys (e.g., brass mills, copper foundries, copper ingot manufacturing, etc.). Zinc compounds and dust are also used, to a lesser extent, by the agriculture, chemicals, paint, and rubber industries.

Primary production in the United States is conducted through the electrolytic process, while secondary techniques include the electrothermic and Waelz kiln processes, as well as a range of other metallurgical, hydrometallurgical, and pyrometallurgical processes. Worldwide primary zinc production also employs a pyrometallurgical process using the Imperial Smelting Furnace process; however, this process is not used in the United States (Sjardin 2003).

In the electrothermic process, roasted zinc concentrate and secondary zinc products enter a sinter feed where they are burned to remove impurities before entering an electric retort furnace. Metallurgical coke is added to the electric retort furnace as a carbon-containing reductant. This concentration step, using metallurgical coke and high temperatures, reduces the zinc oxides and produces vaporized zinc, which is then captured in a vacuum condenser. This reduction process also generates non-energy CO₂ emissions.



In the Waelz kiln process, electric arc furnace (EAF) dust, which is captured during the recycling of galvanized steel, enters a kiln along with a reducing agent (typically carbon-containing metallurgical coke). When kiln temperatures reach approximately 1100-1200 °C, zinc fumes are produced, which are combusted with air entering the kiln. This combustion forms zinc oxide, which is collected in a baghouse or electrostatic precipitator, and is then leached to remove chloride and fluoride. The use of carbon-containing metallurgical coke in a high-temperature fuming process results in non-energy CO₂ emissions. Through this process, approximately 0.33 metric ton of zinc is produced for every metric ton of EAF dust treated (Viklund-White 2000).

The only companies in the United States that use emissive technology to produce secondary zinc products are Horsehead, PIZO, and Steel Dust Recycling. For Horsehead, EAF dust is recycled in Waelz kilns at their Beaumont, TX; Calumet, IL; Palmerton, PA; Rockwood, TN; and Barnwell, SC facilities. These Waelz kiln facilities produce intermediate zinc products (crude zinc oxide or calcine), most of which is transported to their Monaca, PA facility where the products are smelted into refined zinc using electrothermic technology. Some of Horsehead's intermediate zinc products that are not smelted at Monaca are instead exported to other countries around the world (Horsehead 2010a). PIZO and Steel Dust Recycling recycle EAF dust into intermediate zinc products using Waelz kilns, and then sell the intermediate products to companies who smelt it into refined products.

In 2012, U.S. primary and secondary refined zinc production were estimated to total 265,000 metric tons (USGS 2013), which was larger than 2011 levels, due to the increased demand for zinc at continuous galvanizing plants in 2012 (USGS 2013) (see Table). Zinc mine production decreased in 2012 compared to 2011 levels, primarily owing to lower production in a zinc-lead mine in Alaska as a result of lower ore processing rates. Also, a zinc producing mine in Idaho was temporarily idled in 2012 due to underground structural work. Primary zinc production (primary slab zinc) slightly increased in 2012. The primary zinc production was lower in 2011 due to planned maintenance in

the third quarter at a zinc refinery in Tennessee. On the other hand, secondary zinc production in 2012 increased relative to 2011 owing to an increase in production at a smelter in Pennsylvania (USGS 2013).

Emissions of CO₂ from zinc production in 2012 were estimated to be 1.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,422 Gg) (see Table 4-83). All 2012 CO₂ emissions resulted from secondary zinc production processes. Emissions from zinc production in the U.S. have increased overall since 1990 due to a gradual shift from non-emissive primary production to emissive secondary production. In 2012, emissions were estimated to be 125 percent higher than they were in 1990.

Table 4-82: Zinc Production (Metric Tons)

Year	Primary	Secondary
1990	262,704	95,708
2005	191,120	156,000
2008	125,000	161,000
2009	94,000	109,000
2010	120,000	129,000
2011 ¹⁴⁷	110,000	138,000
2012	114,000	147,000

Table 4-83: CO₂ Emissions from Zinc Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	0.6	632
2005	1.0	1,030
2008	1.2	1,159
2009	0.9	943
2010	1.2	1,182
2011	1.3	1,286
2012	1.4	1,422

Methodology

The methods used to estimate non-energy CO₂ emissions from zinc production using the electrothermic primary production and Waelz kiln secondary production processes are based on Tier 1 methods from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006). The Tier 1 emission factors provided by IPCC for Waelz kiln-based secondary production were derived from coke consumption factors and other data presented in Vikland-White (2000). These coke consumption factors as well as other inputs used to develop the Waelz kiln emission factors are shown below. IPCC does not provide an emission factor for electrothermic processes due to limited information; therefore, the Waelz kiln-specific emission factors were also applied to zinc produced from electrothermic processes.

For Waelz kiln-based production, IPCC recommends the use of emission factors based on EAF dust consumption, if possible, rather than the amount of zinc produced since the amount of reduction materials used is more directly dependent on the amount of EAF dust consumed. Since only a portion of emissive zinc production facilities consume EAF dust, the emission factor based on zinc production is applied to the non-EAF dust consuming facilities while the emission factor based on EAF dust consumption is applied to EAF dust consuming facilities.

¹⁴⁷ 2011 primary and secondary zinc production data were revised to reflect updated information in USGS, 2012 Minerals Yearbook: Zinc [Advance Release]. This update did not result in a change in emissions.

The Waelz kiln emission factor based on the amount of zinc produced was developed based on the amount of metallurgical coke consumed for non-energy purposes per ton of zinc produced (i.e., 1.19 metric tons coke/metric ton zinc produced) (Viklund-White 2000), and the following equation:

$$EF_{\text{Waelz Kiln}} = \frac{1.19 \text{ metric tons coke}}{\text{metric tons zinc}} \times \frac{0.85 \text{ metric tons C}}{\text{metric tons coke}} \times \frac{3.67 \text{ metric tons CO}_2}{\text{metric tons C}} = \frac{3.70 \text{ metric tons CO}_2}{\text{metric tons zinc}}$$

The Waelz kiln emission factor based on the amount of EAF dust consumed was developed based on the amount of metallurgical coke consumed per ton of EAF dust consumed (i.e., 0.4 metric tons coke/metric ton EAF dust consumed) (Viklund-White 2000), and the following equation:

$$EF_{\text{EAF Dust}} = \frac{0.4 \text{ metric tons coke}}{\text{metric tons EAF dust}} \times \frac{0.85 \text{ metric tons C}}{\text{metric tons coke}} \times \frac{3.67 \text{ metric tons CO}_2}{\text{metric tons C}} = \frac{1.24 \text{ metric tons CO}_2}{\text{metric tons EAF Dust}}$$

The total amount of EAF dust consumed by Horsehead at their Waelz kilns was available from Horsehead financial reports for years 2006 through 2012 (Horsehead 2007, 2008, 2010a, 2011, 2012, and 2013). Consumption levels for 1990 through 2005 were extrapolated using the percentage change in annual refined zinc production at secondary smelters in the United States as provided by *USGS Minerals Yearbook: Zinc* (USGS 1995 through 2012). The EAF dust consumption values for each year were then multiplied by the 1.24 metric tons CO₂/metric ton EAF dust consumed emission factor to develop CO₂ emission estimates for Horsehead's Waelz kiln facilities.

The amount of EAF dust consumed and total production capacity were obtained from Steel Dust Recycling's facility for 2011 (Rowland 2012). SDR's facility in Alabama underwent expansion in 2011 to include a second unit (to be operational in early- to mid-2012). SDR's facility has been operational since 2008. The amount of EAF dust consumed by PIZO's facility in 2009, 2010, and 2011 (the only years this facility has been in operation) and Steel Dust Recycling's facility for 2008, 2009, and 2010 was not publicly available. Therefore, these consumption values, excluding PIZO's 2011 value, were estimated by calculating the 2008 through 2010 annual capacity utilization of Horsehead's Waelz kilns and multiplying this utilization ratio by the capacities of the PIZO and Steel Dust Recycling facilities, which were available from the companies (Horsehead 2007, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, and 2011; PIZO 2012; Steel Dust Recycling LLC 2013). EAF dust consumption for PIZO's facility for 2011 was calculated by applying the average annual capacity utilization rates for Horsehead and SDR (Grupo PROMAX) to PIZO's annual capacity. (Horsehead 2012, Rowland 2012, PIZO 2012). The 1.24 metric tons CO₂/metric ton EAF dust consumed emission factor was then applied to PIZO's and Steel Dust Recycling's estimated EAF dust consumption to develop CO₂ emission estimates for those Waelz kiln facilities. The quantity of EAF dust consumed by SDR's Alabama facility in 2012 was requested; however, this information has still not been obtained. Therefore, the quantity of EAF dust consumed by SDR in 2012 was assumed to be equal to the quantity consumed in 2011.

Refined zinc production levels for Horsehead's Monaca, PA facility (utilizing electrothermic technology) were available from the company for years 2005 through 2012 (Horsehead 2008, 2011, 2012, and 2013). Production levels for 1990 through 2004 were extrapolated using the percentage changes in annual refined zinc production at secondary smelters in the United States as provided by *USGS Minerals Yearbook: Zinc* (USGS 1995 through 2012). The 3.70 metric tons CO₂/metric ton zinc emission factor was then applied to the Monaca facility's production levels to estimate CO₂ emissions for the facility. The Waelz kiln production emission factor was applied in this case rather than the EAF dust consumption emission factor since Horsehead's Monaca facility did not consume EAF dust.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainties contained in these estimates are two-fold, relating to activity data and emission factors used.

First, there is uncertainty associated with the amount of EAF dust consumed in the United States to produce secondary zinc using emission-intensive Waelz kilns. The estimate for the total amount of EAF dust consumed in Waelz kilns is based on (1) an EAF dust consumption value reported annually by Horsehead Corporation as part of its financial reporting to the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), and (2) an EAF dust consumption value obtained from the Waelz kiln facility operated in Alabama by Steel Dust Recycling LLC. Since actual EAF dust consumption information is not available for PIZO's facility (2009-2010) and SDR's facility (2008-2010), the

amount is estimated by multiplying the EAF dust recycling capacity of the facility (available from the company's Web site) by the capacity utilization factor for Horsehead Corporation (which is available from Horsehead's financial reports). Also, the EAF dust consumption for PIZO's facility in 2011 was estimated by multiplying the average capacity utilization factor developed from Horsehead Corp. and SDR's annual capacity utilization rates by PIZO's EAF dust recycling capacity. Therefore, there is uncertainty associated with the assumption used to estimate PIZO and SDR's annual EAF dust consumption values (except SDR's EAF dust consumption in 2011 which was obtained from SDR's recycling facility in Alabama).

Second, there are uncertainties associated with the emission factors used to estimate CO₂ emissions from secondary zinc production processes. The Waelz kiln emission factors are based on materials balances for metallurgical coke and EAF dust consumed as provided by Viklund-White (2000). Therefore, the accuracy of these emission factors depend upon the accuracy of these materials balances. Data limitations prevented the development of emission factors for the electrothermic process. Therefore, emission factors for the Waelz kiln process were applied to both electrothermic and Waelz kiln production processes. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-84. Zinc production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 1.2 and 1.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 16 percent below and 17 percent above the emission estimate of 1.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-84: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Zinc Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Zinc Production	CO ₂	1.4	1.2	1.7	-16%	+17%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements involve evaluating and analyzing data reported under EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Zinc Production source category. Particular attention would be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹⁴⁸

4.20 Lead Production (IPCC Source Category 2C5)

Lead production in the United States consists of both primary and secondary processes—both of which emit CO₂ (Sjardin 2003). Emissions from fuels consumed for energy purposes during the production of lead are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

¹⁴⁸ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

Primary production of lead through the direct smelting of lead concentrate produces CO₂ emissions as the lead concentrates are reduced in a furnace using metallurgical coke (Sjardin 2003). Primary lead production, in the form of direct smelting, occurs at a just a single smelter in Missouri. This primary lead smelter is expected to be closed by the end of 2013 (USGS 2013).

Similar to primary lead production, CO₂ emissions from secondary production result when a reducing agent, usually metallurgical coke, is added to the smelter to aid in the reduction process. Carbon dioxide emissions from secondary production also occur through the treatment of secondary raw materials (Sjardin 2003). Secondary production primarily involves the recycling of lead acid batteries at approximately 20 separate smelters located throughout the United States. A total of 14 of these secondary smelters have annual capacities of 30,000 tons or more and were collectively responsible for more than 99 percent of secondary lead production in 2012 (USGS 2013). Secondary lead production has increased in the United States over the past decade while primary lead production has decreased. In 2012, secondary lead production accounted for nearly 91 percent of total lead production.

U.S. primary lead production decreased by approximately 6 percent from 2011 to 2012, and has decreased by 73 percent since 1990 (USGS 1995 through 2013a, Guberman 2013). In 2012, U.S. secondary lead production decreased from 2011 levels by approximately 2 percent, but has increased by 20 percent since 1990 (USGS 1995 through 2013a, Guberman 2013).

In 2012, U.S. primary and secondary lead production totaled 1,221,000 metric tons (Guberman 2013). The resulting emissions of CO₂ from 2012 production were estimated to be 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (527 Gg) (see Table 4-85). The majority of 2012 lead production is from secondary processes, which accounted for 95 percent of total 2012 CO₂ emissions. At last reporting, the United States was the third largest mine producer of lead in the world, behind China and Australia, accounting for approximately 7 percent of world production in 2012 (USGS 2013).

Table 4-85: CO₂ Emissions from Lead Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	0.5	516
2005	0.6	553
2008	0.6	547
2009	0.5	525
2010	0.5	542
2011	0.5	538
2012	0.5	527

After a steady increase in total emissions from 1995 to 2000, total emissions have gradually decreased since 2000 but were still 2 percent greater in 2012 than in 1990. Although primary production has decreased significantly (73 percent since 1990), secondary production has increased by about 20 percent over the same time period. Since secondary production is more emissions-intensive, the increase in secondary production since 1990 has resulted in a net increase in emissions despite the sharp decrease in primary production (USGS 1995 through 2013a; Guberman 2013).

Methodology

The methods used to estimate emissions for lead production are based on Sjardin’s work (Sjardin 2003) for lead production emissions and Tier 1 methods from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC 2006). The Tier 1 equation is as follows:

$$CO_2 \text{ Emissions} = (DS \times EFa) + (S \times EFb)$$

Where,

- DS = Lead produced by direct smelting, metric ton
- S = Lead produced from secondary materials
- EFa, b = Applicable emission factor, metric tons CO₂/metric ton product

For primary lead production using direct smelting, Sjardin (2003) and the IPCC (2006) provide an emission factor of 0.25 metric tons CO₂/metric ton lead. For secondary lead production, Sjardin (2003) and IPCC (2006) provide an emission factor of 0.25 metric tons CO₂/metric ton lead for direct smelting, as well as an emission factor of 0.2 metric tons CO₂/metric ton lead produced for the treatment of secondary raw materials (i.e., pretreatment of lead acid batteries). Since the secondary production of lead involves both the use of the direct smelting process and the treatment of secondary raw materials, Sjardin recommends an additive emission factor to be used in conjunction with the secondary lead production quantity. The direct smelting factor (0.25) and the sum of the direct smelting and pretreatment emission factors (0.45) are multiplied by total U.S. primary and secondary lead production, respectively, to estimate CO₂ emissions.

The 1990 through 2012 activity data for primary and secondary lead production (see Table 4-86) were obtained from the USGS through personal communications with the USGS Lead Commodity Specialist (Guberman 2013) and through the *USGS Mineral Yearbook: Lead* (USGS 1995 through 2013a).

Table 4-86: Lead Production (Metric Tons)

Year	Primary	Secondary
1990	404,000	922,000
2005	143,000	1,150,000
2008	135,000	1,140,000
2009	103,000	1,110,000
2010	115,000	1,140,000
2011	118,000	1,130,000
2012	111,000	1,110,000

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty associated with lead production relates to the emission factors and activity data used. The direct smelting emission factor used in primary production is taken from Sjardin (2003) who averaged the values provided by three other studies (Dutrizac et al. 2000, Morris et al. 1983, Ullman 1997). For secondary production, Sjardin (2003) added a CO₂ emission factor associated with battery treatment. The applicability of these emission factors to plants in the United States is uncertain. There is also a smaller level of uncertainty associated with the accuracy of primary and secondary production data provided by the USGS.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-87. Lead production CO₂ emissions were estimated to be between 0.5 and 0.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 14 percent below and 15 percent above the emission estimate of 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-87: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Lead Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
Lead Production	CO ₂	0.5	0.5	0.6	-14%	+15%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Future improvements involve evaluating and analyzing data reported under EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emission estimates for the Lead Production source category. Particular attention would be made to ensure time series consistency of the emissions estimates presented in future inventory reports, consistent with IPCC and UNFCCC guidelines. This is required as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP, with the program's initial requirements for reporting of emissions in calendar year 2010, are not available for all inventory years (i.e., 1990 through 2009) as required for this Inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹⁴⁹

4.21 HCFC-22 Production (IPCC Source Category 2E1)

Trifluoromethane (HFC-23 or CHF₃) is generated as a byproduct during the manufacture of chlorodifluoromethane (HCFC-22), which is primarily employed in refrigeration and air conditioning systems and as a chemical feedstock for manufacturing synthetic polymers. Between 1990 and 2000, U.S. production of HCFC-22 increased significantly as HCFC-22 replaced chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) in many applications. Between 2000 and 2007, U.S. production fluctuated but generally remained above 1990 levels. In 2008 and 2009, U.S. production declined markedly and has remained near 2009 levels since. Because HCFC-22 depletes stratospheric ozone, its production for non-feedstock uses is scheduled to be phased out by 2020 under the U.S. Clean Air Act.¹⁵⁰ Feedstock production, however, is permitted to continue indefinitely.

HCFC-22 is produced by the reaction of chloroform (CHCl₃) and hydrogen fluoride (HF) in the presence of a catalyst, SbCl₅. The reaction of the catalyst and HF produces SbCl_xF_y, (where x + y = 5), which reacts with chlorinated hydrocarbons to replace chlorine atoms with fluorine. The HF and chloroform are introduced by submerged piping into a continuous-flow reactor that contains the catalyst in a hydrocarbon mixture of chloroform and partially fluorinated intermediates. The vapors leaving the reactor contain HCFC-21 (CHCl₂F), HCFC-22 (CHClF₂), HFC-23 (CHF₃), HCl, chloroform, and HF. The under-fluorinated intermediates (HCFC-21) and chloroform are then condensed and returned to the reactor, along with residual catalyst, to undergo further fluorination. The final vapors leaving the condenser are primarily HCFC-22, HFC-23, HCl and residual HF. The HCl is recovered as a useful byproduct, and the HF is removed. Once separated from HCFC-22, the HFC-23 may be released to the atmosphere, recaptured for use in a limited number of applications, or destroyed.

Three facilities produced HCFC-22 in the U.S. in 2012. Emissions of HFC-23 from this activity in 2012 were estimated to be 4.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.4 Gg) (see Table 4-88). This quantity represents a 38 percent decrease from 2011 emissions and an 88 percent decline from 1990 emissions. The decrease from 2011 emissions was caused by a 13 percent decrease in HCFC-22 production and a 28 percent decrease in the HFC-23 emission rate (kg HFC-23 emitted/kg HCFC-22 produced). The decline from 1990 emissions is due to a 31 percent decrease in HCFC-22 production and an 83 percent decrease in the HFC-23 emission rate since 1990. The decrease in the emission rate is primarily attributable to five factors: (a) five plants that did not capture and destroy the HFC-23 generated have ceased production of HCFC-22 since 1990, (b) one plant that captures and destroys the HFC-23 generated began to produce HCFC-22, (c) one plant implemented and documented a process change that reduced the amount of HFC-23 generated, and (d) the same plant began recovering HFC-23, primarily for destruction and secondarily for sale, and (e) another plant began destroying HFC-23.

Table 4-88: HFC-23 Emissions from HCFC-22 Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

¹⁴⁹ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

¹⁵⁰ As construed, interpreted, and applied in the terms and conditions of the *Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer*. [42 U.S.C. §7671m(b), CAA §614]

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	36.4	3
2005	15.8	1
2008	13.6	1
2009	5.4	0.5
2010	6.4	0.5
2011	6.9	0.6
2012	4.3	0.4

Methodology

To estimate HFC-23 emissions for five of the eight HCFC-22 plants that have operated in the United States since 1990, methods comparable to the Tier 3 methods in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) were used. Emissions for 2010 through 2012 were obtained through reports submitted by U.S. HCFC-22 production facilities to EPA's GHGRP. EPA's GHGRP mandates that all HCFC-22 production facilities report their annual emissions of HFC-23 from HCFC-22 production processes and HFC-23 destruction processes. Previously, data were obtained by EPA through collaboration with an industry association that received voluntarily reported HCFC-22 production and HFC-23 emissions annually from all U.S. HCFC-22 producers from 1990 through 2009. These emissions were aggregated and reported to EPA on an annual basis.

For the other three plants, the last of which closed in 1993, methods comparable to the Tier 1 method in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines* were used. Emissions from these three plants have been calculated using the recommended emission factor for unoptimized plants operating before 1995 (0.04 kg HCFC-23/kg HCFC-22 produced).

The five plants that have operated since 1994 measured concentrations of HFC-23 to estimate their emissions of HFC-23. Plants using thermal oxidation to abate their HFC-23 emissions monitor the performance of their oxidizers to verify that the HFC-23 is almost completely destroyed. Plants that release (or historically have released) some of their byproduct HFC-23 periodically measure HFC-23 concentrations in the output stream using gas chromatography. This information is combined with information on quantities of products (e.g., HCFC-22) to estimate HFC-23 emissions.

To estimate 1990 through 2009 emissions, reports from an industry association were used that aggregated HCFC-22 production and HFC-23 emissions from all U.S. HCFC-22 producers and reported them to EPA (ARAP 1997, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010). To estimate 2010 through 2012 emissions, facility-level data (including both HCFC-22 production and HFC-23 emissions) reported through the EPA's GHGRP were analyzed. In 1997 and 2008, comprehensive reviews of plant-level estimates of HFC-23 emissions and HCFC-22 production were performed (RTI 1997; RTI 2008). The 1997 and 2008 reviews enabled U.S. totals to be reviewed, updated, and where necessary, corrected, and also for plant-level uncertainty analyses (Monte-Carlo simulations) to be performed for 1990, 1995, 2000, 2005, and 2006. Estimates of annual U.S. HCFC-22 production are presented in Table 4-89.

Table 4-89: HCFC-22 Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	139
2005	156
2008	126
2009	91
2010	101
2011	110
2012	96

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainty analysis presented in this section was based on a plant-level Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for 2006. The Monte Carlo analysis used estimates of the uncertainties in the individual variables in each plant’s estimating procedure. This analysis was based on the generation of 10,000 random samples of model inputs from the probability density functions for each input. A normal probability density function was assumed for all measurements and biases except the equipment leak estimates for one plant; a log-normal probability density function was used for this plant’s equipment leak estimates. The simulation for 2006 yielded a 95-percent confidence interval for U.S. emissions of 6.8 percent below to 9.6 percent above the reported total.

The relative errors yielded by the Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for 2006 were applied to the U.S. emission estimate for 2012. The resulting estimates of absolute uncertainty are likely to be reasonably accurate because (1) the methods used by the three plants to estimate their emissions are not believed to have changed significantly since 2006, and (2) although the distribution of emissions among the plants may have changed between 2006 and 2012 (because both HCFC-22 production and the HFC-23 emission rate declined significantly), the two plants that contribute significantly to emissions were estimated to have similar relative uncertainties in their 2006 (as well as 2005) emission estimates. Thus, changes in the relative contributions of these two plants to total emissions are not likely to have a large impact on the uncertainty of the national emission estimate.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-90. HFC-23 emissions from HCFC-22 production were estimated to be between 4.0 and 4.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 7 percent below and 10 percent above the emission estimate of 4.3 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-90: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for HFC-23 Emissions from HCFC-22 Production (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a (%)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
HCFC-22 Production	HFC-23	4.3	4.0	4.8	-7%	+10%

^a Range of emissions reflects a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

4.22 Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances (IPCC Source Category 2F)

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and perfluorocarbons (PFCs) are used as alternatives to several classes of ozone-depleting substances (ODSs) that are being phased out under the terms of the *Montreal Protocol* and the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990.¹⁵¹ Ozone depleting substances—chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, carbon tetrachloride, methyl chloroform, and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs)—are used in a variety of industrial applications including refrigeration and air conditioning equipment, solvent cleaning, foam production, sterilization, fire extinguishing, and aerosols. Although HFCs and PFCs are not harmful to the stratospheric ozone layer, they are potent greenhouse gases. Emission estimates for HFCs and PFCs used as substitutes for ODSs are provided in Table 4-91 and Table 4-92.

¹⁵¹ [42 U.S.C § 7671, CAA Title VI]

Table 4-91: Emissions of HFCs and PFCs from ODS Substitutes (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
HFC-23	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
HFC-32	+	0.3	1.3	1.7	2.5	3.2	4.1
HFC-125	+	8.5	14.3	17.3	22.2	26.6	31.7
HFC-134a	+	79.8	87.9	90.0	89.7	86.1	82.8
HFC-143a	+	8.7	11.1	12.6	14.7	16.8	18.9
HFC-236fa	+	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
CF ₄	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Others*	0.3	5.6	6.7	7.0	7.4	7.8	8.2
Total	0.3	103.8	122.2	129.6	137.5	141.5	146.8

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

* Others include HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-245fa, HFC-43-10mee, C₄F₁₀, and PFC/PFPEs, the latter being a proxy for a diverse collection of PFCs and perfluoropolyethers (PFPEs) employed for solvent applications. For estimating purposes, the GWP value used for PFC/PFPEs was based upon C₆F₁₄.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-92: Emissions of HFCs and PFCs from ODS Substitution (Mg)

Gas	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
HFC-23	+	1	2	2	2	2	2
HFC-32	+	505	2,025	2,613	3,856	4,935	6,324
HFC-125	+	3,053	5,119	6,178	7,930	9,511	11,333
HFC-134a	+	61,362	67,634	69,224	68,998	66,234	63,719
HFC-143a	+	2,290	2,911	3,325	3,861	4,412	4,976
HFC-236fa	+	125	141	144	146	147	148
CF ₄	+	2	2	2	3	3	3
Others*	M	M	M	M	M	M	M

M (Mixture of Gases)

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Mg

* Others include HFC-152a, HFC-227ea, HFC-245fa, HFC-43-10mee, C₄F₁₀, and PFC/PFPEs, the latter being a proxy for a diverse collection of PFCs and perfluoropolyethers (PFPEs) employed for solvent applications.

In 1990 and 1991, the only significant emissions of HFCs and PFCs as substitutes to ODSs were relatively small amounts of HFC-152a—used as an aerosol propellant and also a component of the refrigerant blend R-500 used in chillers—and HFC-134a in refrigeration end-uses. Beginning in 1992, HFC-134a was used in growing amounts as a refrigerant in motor vehicle air-conditioners and in refrigerant blends such as R-404A.¹⁵² In 1993, the use of HFCs in foam production began, and in 1994 ODS substitutes for halons entered widespread use in the United States as halon production was phased-out. In 1995, these compounds also found applications as solvents.

The use and subsequent emissions of HFCs and PFCs as ODS substitutes has been increasing from small amounts in 1990 to 146.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012. This increase was in large part the result of efforts to phase out CFCs and other ODSs in the United States. In the short term, this trend is expected to continue, and will likely continue over the next decade as HCFCs, which are interim substitutes in many applications, are themselves phased-out under the provisions of the Copenhagen Amendments to the *Montreal Protocol*. Improvements in the technologies associated with the use of these gases and the introduction of alternative gases and technologies, however, may help to offset this anticipated increase in emissions.

Table 4-93 presents emissions of HFCs and PFCs as ODS substitutes by end-use sector for 1990 through 2012. The end-use sectors that contributed the most toward emissions of HFCs and PFCs as ODS substitutes in 2012 include refrigeration and air-conditioning (128.2 Tg CO₂ Eq., or approximately 87 percent), aerosols (9.9 Tg CO₂ Eq., or approximately 7 percent), and foams (6.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., or approximately 4 percent). Within the refrigeration and air-conditioning end-use sector, motor vehicle air-conditioning was the highest emitting end-use (58.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.),

¹⁵² R-404A contains HFC-125, HFC-143a, and HFC-134a.

followed by refrigerated retail food and refrigerated transport. Each of the end-use sectors is described in more detail below.

Table 4-93: Emissions of HFCs and PFCs from ODS Substitutes (Tg CO₂ Eq.) by Sector

Sector	1990	2005	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Refrigeration/Air Conditioning	+	92.7	103.6	109.1	114.6	120.5	123.7	128.2
Aerosols	0.3	7.3	8.2	8.6	9.1	9.3	9.7	9.9
Foams	+	1.9	2.3	2.5	3.9	5.4	5.9	6.3
Solvents	+	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4
Fire Protection	+	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0
Total	0.3	103.8	116.0	122.2	129.6	137.5	141.5	146.8

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Refrigeration/Air Conditioning

The refrigeration and air-conditioning sector includes a wide variety of equipment types that have historically used CFCs or HCFCs. End-uses within this sector include motor vehicle air-conditioning, retail food refrigeration, refrigerated transport (e.g., ship holds, truck trailers, railway freight cars), household refrigeration, residential and small commercial air-conditioning and heat pumps, chillers (large comfort cooling), cold storage facilities, and industrial process refrigeration (e.g., systems used in food processing, chemical, petrochemical, pharmaceutical, oil and gas, and metallurgical industries). As the ODS phaseout is taking effect, most equipment is being or will eventually be retrofitted or replaced to use HFC-based substitutes. Common HFCs in use today in refrigeration/air-conditioning equipment are HFC-134a, R-410A¹⁵³, R-404A, and R-507A¹⁵⁴. These HFCs are emitted to the atmosphere during equipment manufacture and operation (as a result of component failure, leaks, and purges), as well as at servicing and disposal events.

Aerosols

Aerosol propellants are used in metered dose inhalers (MDIs) and a variety of personal care products and technical/specialty products (e.g., duster sprays and safety horns). Many pharmaceutical companies that produce MDIs—a type of inhaled therapy used to treat asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease—have replaced the use of CFCs with HFC-propellant alternatives. The earliest ozone-friendly MDIs were produced with HFC-134a, but the industry has started to use HFC-227ea as well. Conversely, since the use of CFC propellants was banned in 1978, most non-medical consumer aerosol products have not transitioned to HFCs, but to “not-in-kind” technologies, such as solid roll-on deodorants and finger-pump sprays. The transition away from ODS in specialty aerosol products has also led to the introduction of non-fluorocarbon alternatives (e.g., hydrocarbon propellants) in certain applications, in addition to HFC-134a or HFC-152a. These propellants are released into the atmosphere as the aerosol products are used.

Foams

CFCs and HCFCs have traditionally been used as foam blowing agents to produce polyurethane (PU), polystyrene, polyolefin, and phenolic foams, which are used in a wide variety of products and applications. Since the *Montreal Protocol*, flexible PU foams as well as other types of foam, such as polystyrene sheet, polyolefin, and phenolic foam, have transitioned almost completely away from fluorocompounds, into alternatives such as CO₂, methylene chloride, and hydrocarbons. The majority of rigid PU foams have transitioned to HFCs—primarily HFC-134a and HFC-245fa. Today, these HFCs are used to produce polyurethane appliance, PU commercial refrigeration, PU spray, and PU panel foams—used in refrigerators, vending machines, roofing, wall insulation, garage doors, and cold storage applications. In addition, HFC-152a, HFC-134a and CO₂ are used to produce polystyrene sheet/board foam, which is used in food packaging and building insulation. Emissions of blowing agents occur when the foam is manufactured as well as during the foam lifetime and at foam disposal, depending on the particular foam type.

¹⁵³ R-410A contains HFC-32 and HFC-125.

¹⁵⁴ R-507A, also called R-507, contains HFC-125 and HFC-143a.

Solvents

HFCs, methyl chloroform (1,1,1-trichloroethane or TCA), and to a lesser extent carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄) were historically used as solvents in a wide range of cleaning applications, including precision, electronics, and metal cleaning. Since their phaseout, metal cleaning end-use applications have primarily transitioned to non-fluorocarbon solvents and not-in-kind processes. The precision and electronics cleaning end-uses have transitioned in part to high-GWP gases, due to their high reliability, excellent compatibility, good stability, low toxicity, and selective solvency. These applications rely on HFC-43-10mee, HFC-365mfc, HFC-245fa, and to a lesser extent, PFCs. Electronics cleaning involves removing flux residue that remains after a soldering operation for printed circuit boards and other contamination-sensitive electronics applications. Precision cleaning may apply to either electronic components or to metal surfaces, and is characterized by products, such as disk drives, gyroscopes, and optical components, that require a high level of cleanliness and generally have complex shapes, small clearances, and other cleaning challenges. The use of solvents yields fugitive emissions of these HFCs and PFCs.

Fire Protection

Fire protection applications include portable fire extinguishers (“streaming” applications) that originally used halon 1211, and total flooding applications that originally used halon 1301, as well as some halon 2402. Since the production and sale of halons were banned in the United States in 1994, the halon replacement agent of choice in the streaming sector has been dry chemical, although HFC-236fa is also used to a limited extent. In the total flooding sector, HFC-227ea has emerged as the primary replacement for halon 1301 in applications that require clean agents. Other HFCs, such as HFC-23 and HFC-125, are used in smaller amounts. The majority of HFC-227ea in total flooding systems is used to protect essential electronics, as well as in civil aviation, military mobile weapons systems, oil/gas/other process industries, and merchant shipping. As fire protection equipment is tested or deployed, emissions of these HFCs occur.

Methodology

A detailed Vintaging Model of ODS-containing equipment and products was used to estimate the actual—versus potential—emissions of various ODS substitutes, including HFCs and PFCs. The name of the model refers to the fact that it tracks the use and emissions of various compounds for the annual “vintages” of new equipment that enter service in each end-use. The Vintaging Model predicts ODS and ODS substitute use in the United States based on modeled estimates of the quantity of equipment or products sold each year containing these chemicals and the amount of the chemical required to manufacture and/or maintain equipment and products over time. Emissions for each end-use were estimated by applying annual leak rates and release profiles, which account for the lag in emissions from equipment as they leak over time. By aggregating the data for 60 different end-uses, the model produces estimates of annual use and emissions of each compound. Further information on the Vintaging Model is contained in Annex 3.8.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Given that emissions of ODS substitutes occur from thousands of different kinds of equipment and from millions of point and mobile sources throughout the United States, emission estimates must be made using analytical tools such as the Vintaging Model or the methods outlined in IPCC (2006). Though the model is more comprehensive than the IPCC default methodology, significant uncertainties still exist with regard to the levels of equipment sales, equipment characteristics, and end-use emissions profiles that were used to estimate annual emissions for the various compounds.

The Vintaging Model estimates emissions from 60 end-uses. The uncertainty analysis, however, quantifies the level of uncertainty associated with the aggregate emissions resulting from the top 21 end-uses, comprising over 95 percent of the total emissions, and 6 other end-uses. These 27 end-uses comprise 97 percent of the total emissions, equivalent to 143.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. In an effort to improve the uncertainty analysis, additional end-uses are added annually, with the intention that over time uncertainty for all emissions from the Vintaging Model will be fully characterized. Any end-uses included in previous years’ uncertainty analysis were included in the current

uncertainty analysis, whether or not those end-uses were included in the top 95 percent of emissions from ODS Substitutes.

In order to calculate uncertainty, functional forms were developed to simplify some of the complex “vintaging” aspects of some end-use sectors, especially with respect to refrigeration and air-conditioning, and to a lesser degree, fire extinguishing. These sectors calculate emissions based on the entire lifetime of equipment, not just equipment put into commission in the current year, thereby necessitating simplifying equations. The functional forms used variables that included growth rates, emission factors, transition from ODSs, change in charge size as a result of the transition, disposal quantities, disposal emission rates, and either stock for the current year or original ODS consumption. Uncertainty was estimated around each variable within the functional forms based on expert judgment, and a Monte Carlo analysis was performed. The most significant sources of uncertainty for this source category include the emission factors for refrigerated transport, as well as the percent of non-MDI aerosol propellant that is HFC-152a.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-94. Substitution of ozone depleting substances HFC and PFC emissions were estimated to be between 143.4 and 163.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 0.14 percent below to 14.1 percent above the emission estimate of 146.8Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-94: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for HFC and PFC Emissions from ODS Substitutes (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gases	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.) ^a	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^b			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	HFCs and PFCs	146.8	143.4	163.9	-0.14%	+14.1%

^a 2012 emission estimates and the uncertainty range presented in this table correspond to selected end-uses within the aerosols, foams, solvents, fire extinguishing agents, and refrigerants sectors that comprise 97 percent of total emissions, but not for other remaining categories. Therefore, because the uncertainty associated with emissions from “other” ODS substitutes was not estimated, they were excluded in the estimates reported in this table.

^b Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

A review of the MVAC light-duty vehicle (LDV) and light-duty truck (LDT) end-uses led to revisions in the assumed transition scenarios, stock and growth rate assumptions, and equipment lifetime. Updated annual sales and registration data was used to update the installed base, annual growth rate, and lifetime for the MVAC end-uses. In addition, although HFC-134a has been the dominant refrigerant in MVACs since the 1990s, an additional transition to HFO-1234yf was added to the Vintaging Model beginning in 2012 to reflect a recent shift in new vehicles to HFO-1234yf. Overall, these changes to the Vintaging Model increased GHG emissions on average by 7 percent across the time series.

4.23 Semiconductor Manufacture (IPCC Source Category 2F6)

The semiconductor industry uses multiple long-lived fluorinated greenhouse gases in plasma etching and plasma enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) processes to produce semiconductor products. The gases most commonly employed are trifluoromethane (HFC-23 or CHF₃), perfluoromethane (CF₄), perfluoroethane (C₂F₆),

nitrogen trifluoride (NF₃), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆), although other compounds such as perfluoropropane (C₃F₈) and perfluorocyclobutane (c-C₄F₈) are also used. The exact combination of compounds is specific to the process employed.

A single 300 mm silicon wafer that yields between 400 to 500 semiconductor products (devices or chips) may require as many as, or more than 100 distinct fluorinated-gas-using process steps, principally to deposit and pattern dielectric films. Plasma etching (or patterning) of dielectric films, such as silicon dioxide and silicon nitride, is performed to provide pathways for conducting material to connect individual circuit components in each device. The patterning process uses plasma-generated fluorine atoms, which chemically react with exposed dielectric film to selectively remove the desired portions of the film. The material removed as well as undissociated fluorinated gases flow into waste streams and, unless emission abatement systems are employed, into the atmosphere. PECVD chambers, used for depositing dielectric films, are cleaned periodically using fluorinated and other gases. During the cleaning cycle the gas is converted to fluorine atoms in plasma, which etches away residual material from chamber walls, electrodes, and chamber hardware. Undissociated fluorinated gases and other products pass from the chamber to waste streams and, unless abatement systems are employed, into the atmosphere. In addition to emissions of unreacted gases, some fluorinated compounds can also be transformed in the plasma processes into different fluorinated compounds which are then exhausted, unless abated, into the atmosphere. For example, when C₂F₆ is used in cleaning or etching, CF₄ is generated and emitted as a process by-product. Besides dielectric film etching and PECVD chamber cleaning, much smaller quantities of fluorinated gases are used to etch polysilicon films and refractory metal films like tungsten.

For 2012, total CO₂ weighted emissions of all fluorinated greenhouse gases by the U.S. semiconductor industry were estimated to be 3.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. Combined emissions of all fluorinated greenhouse gases are presented in Table 4-95 and Table 4-96 below for years 1990, 2005 and the period 2008 to 2012. The rapid growth of this industry and the increasing complexity (growing number of layers) of semiconductor products led to an increase in emissions of 148 percent between 1990 and 1999, when emissions peaked at 7.2 Tg CO₂ Eq.¹⁵⁵ The emissions growth rate began to slow after 1999, and emissions declined by 48 percent between 1999 and 2012. Together, industrial growth and adoption of emissions reduction technologies, including but not limited to abatement technologies, resulted in a net increase in emissions of 28 percent between 1990 and 2012.

There was a sizable dip seen in emissions between 2008 and 2009, a 28 percent decrease, due to the slowed economic growth, and hence production, during this time. The industry recovered and emissions rose between 2009 and 2010 by more than 29 percent and between 2010 and 2011 by 34 percent; a small reduction in emissions can be seen between 2011 and 2012.

Table 4-95: PFC, HFC, and SF₆ Emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CF ₄	0.7	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.2
C ₂ F ₆	1.5	1.5	1.3	0.0	1.3	1.5	1.5
C ₃ F ₈	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.1
C ₄ F ₈	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
HFC-23	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
SF ₆	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.7
NF ₃ *	0.0	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3
Total	2.9	3.5	3.0	2.2	2.8	3.9	3.7

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

* NF₃ emissions are presented for informational purposes, using the AR4 GWP of 17,200, and are not included in totals.

Table 4-96: PFC, HFC, and SF₆ Emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture (Mg)

Year	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
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¹⁵⁵ Complexity is a term denoting the circuit required to connect the active circuit elements (transistors) on a chip. Increasing miniaturization, for the same chip size, leads to increasing transistor density, which, in turn, requires more complex interconnections between those transistors. This increasing complexity is manifested by increasing the levels (i.e., layers) of wiring, with each wiring layer requiring fluorinated gas usage for its manufacture.

CF ₄	115	144	146	109	148	197	186
C ₂ F ₆	160	162	138	94	119	164	167
C ₃ F ₈	0	9	18	11	14	22	14
C ₄ F ₈	0	12	6	4	4	8	7
HFC-23	15	14	15	12	15	13	14
SF ₆	22	31	19	14	17	29	28
NF ₃	3	24	27	21	23	20	20

Methodology

Emissions are based on data reported through Subpart I—Electronics Manufacture of EPA’s GHGRP, Partner reported emissions data received through the EPA’s PFC Reduction/Climate Partnership, EPA’s PFC Emissions Vintage Model (PEVM)—a model that estimates industry emissions in the absence of emission control strategies (Burton and Beizaie 2001)¹⁵⁶, and estimates of industry activity (i.e., total manufactured layer area). The availability and applicability of reported data from the EPA Partnership and EPA’s GHGRP differs across the 1990 through 2012 time series. Consequently, emissions from semiconductor manufacturing were estimated using five distinct methods, one each for the periods 1990 through 1994, 1995 through 1999, 2000 through 2006, 2007 through 2010, and 2011 and 2012.

1990 through 1994

From 1990 through 1994, Partnership data was unavailable and emissions were modeled using the PEVM (Burton and Beizaie 2001).¹⁵⁷ The 1990 to 1994 emissions are assumed to be uncontrolled, since reduction strategies such as chemical substitution and abatement were yet to be developed.

PEVM is based on the recognition that PFC emissions from semiconductor manufacturing vary with: (1) the number of layers that comprise different kinds of semiconductor devices, including both silicon wafer and metal interconnect layers, and (2) silicon consumption (i.e., the area of semiconductors produced) for each kind of device. The product of these two quantities, Total Manufactured Layer Area (TMLA), constitutes the activity data for semiconductor manufacturing. PEVM also incorporates an emission factor that expresses emissions per unit of layer-area. Emissions are estimated by multiplying TMLA by this emission factor.

PEVM incorporates information on the two attributes of semiconductor devices that affect the number of layers: (1) linewidth technology (the smallest manufactured feature size),¹⁵⁸ and (2) product type (discrete, memory or logic).¹⁵⁹ For each linewidth technology, a weighted average number of layers is estimated using VLSI product-specific worldwide silicon demand data in conjunction with complexity factors (i.e., the number of layers per Integrated Circuit (IC)) specific to product type (Burton and Beizaie 2001, ITRS 2007). PEVM derives historical

¹⁵⁶ A Partner refers to a participant in the U.S. EPA PFC Reduction/Climate Partnership for the Semiconductor Industry. Through a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with the EPA, Partners voluntarily reported their PFC emissions to the EPA by way of a third party, which aggregated the emissions through 2010. For 2011, while no MOU existed, it was assumed that the same companies that were Partners in 2010 were “Partners” in 2011 for purposes of estimating inventory emissions.

¹⁵⁷ Various versions of the PEVM exist to reflect changing industrial practices. From 1990 to 1994 emissions estimates are from PEVM v1.0, completed in September 1998. The emission factor used to estimate 1990 to 1994 emissions is an average of the 1995 and 1996 emissions factors, which were derived from Partner reported data for those years.

¹⁵⁸ By decreasing features of Integrated Circuit components, more components can be manufactured per device, which increases its functionality. However, as those individual components shrink it requires more layers to interconnect them to achieve the functionality. For example, a microprocessor manufactured with the smallest feature sizes (65 nm) might contain as many as 1 billion transistors and require as many as 11 layers of component interconnects to achieve functionality, while a device manufactured with 130 nm feature size might contain a few hundred million transistors and require 8 layers of component interconnects (ITRS 2007).

¹⁵⁹ Memory devices manufactured with the same feature sizes as microprocessors (a logic device) require approximately one-half the number of interconnect layers, whereas discrete devices require only a silicon base layer and no interconnect layers (ITRS 2007). Since discrete devices did not start using PFCs appreciably until 2004, they are only accounted for in the PEVM emissions estimates from 2004 onwards.

consumption of silicon (i.e., square inches) by linewidth technology from published data on annual wafer starts and average wafer size (VLSI Research, Inc. 2010).

The emission factor in PEVM is the average of four historical emission factors, each derived by dividing the total annual emissions reported by the Partners for each of the four years between 1996 and 1999 by the total TMLA estimated for the Partners in each of those years. Over this period, the emission factors varied relatively little (i.e., the relative standard deviation for the average was 5 percent). Since Partners are believed not to have applied significant emission reduction measures before 2000, the resulting average emission factor reflects uncontrolled emissions. The emission factor is used to estimate world uncontrolled emissions using publicly-available data on world silicon consumption.

As it was assumed for this time period that there was no consequential adoption of fluorinated-gas-reducing measures, a fixed distribution of fluorinated-gas use was assumed to apply to the entire U.S. industry to estimate gas-specific emissions. This distribution was based upon the average fluorinated-gas purchases made by semiconductor manufacturers during this period and the application of IPCC default emission factors for each gas (Burton and Beizaie 2001).

1995 through 1999

For 1995 through 1999, total U.S. emissions were extrapolated from the total annual emissions reported by the Partners (1995 through 1999). Partner-reported emissions are considered more representative (e.g., in terms of capacity utilization in a given year) than PEVM estimated emissions, and are used to generate total U.S. emissions when applicable. The emissions reported by the Partners were divided by the ratio of the total capacity of the plants operated by the Partners and the total capacity of all of the semiconductor plants in the United States; this ratio represents the share of capacity attributable to the Partnership. This method assumes that Partners and non-Partners have identical capacity utilizations and distributions of manufacturing technologies. Plant capacity data is contained in the World Fab Forecast (WFF) database and its predecessors, which is updated quarterly (Semiconductor Equipment and Materials Industry 2011). Gas-specific emissions were estimated using the same method as for 1990 through 1994.

2000 through 2006

Emissions for the years 2000 through 2006—the period during which Partners began the consequential application of PFC-reduction measures—were estimated using a combination of Partner-reported emissions and adjusted PEVM modeled emissions. The emissions reported by Partners for each year were accepted as the quantity emitted from the share of the industry represented by those Partners. Remaining emissions, those from non-Partners, were estimated using PEVM and the method described above, with one change. To ensure time series consistency and to reflect the increasing use of remote clean technology (which increases the efficiency of the production process while lowering emissions of fluorinated greenhouse gases), the average non-Partner emission factor was assumed to begin declining gradually during this period. Specifically, the non-Partner emission factor for each year was determined by linear interpolation, using the end points of 1999 (the original PEVM emission factor) and 2011 (new emission factor determined for non-Partners population based on GHGRP-reported data, described below).

The portion of the U.S. total attributed to non-Partners is obtained by multiplying PEVM's total U.S. emissions figure by the non-Partner share of U.S. total silicon capacity for each year as described above.¹⁶⁰ Gas-specific emissions from non-Partners were estimated using linear interpolation of gas-specific emission distribution of 1999 (assumed same as total US Industry in 1994) and 2011 (calculated from a subset of non-Partner facilities from GHGRP reported emissions data). Annual updates to PEVM reflect published figures for actual silicon consumption from VLSI Research, Inc., revisions and additions to the world population of semiconductor manufacturing plants,

¹⁶⁰ This approach assumes that the distribution of linewidth technologies is the same between Partners and non-Partners. As discussed in the description of the method used to estimate 2007 emissions, this is not always the case.

and changes in IC fabrication practices within the semiconductor industry (see ITRS 2008 and Semiconductor Equipment and Materials Industry 2011).^{161,162,163}

2007 through 2010

For the years 2007 through 2010, emissions were also estimated using a combination of Partner reported emissions and adjusted PEVM modeled emissions to provide estimates for non-Partners; however, two improvements were made to the estimation method employed for the previous years in the time series. First, the 2007 through 2010 emission estimates account for the fact that Partners and non-Partners employ different distributions of manufacturing technologies, with the Partners using manufacturing technologies with greater transistor densities and therefore greater numbers of layers.¹⁶⁴ Second, the scope of the 2007 through 2010 estimates was expanded relative to the estimates for the years 2000 through 2006 to include emissions from research and development (R&D) fabs. This additional enhancement was feasible through the use of more detailed data published in the World Fab Forecast. PEVM databases were updated annually as described above. The published world average capacity utilization for 2007 through 2010 was used for production fabs, while for R&D fabs a 20 percent figure was assumed (SIA 2009).

In addition, publicly-available actual utilization data was used to account for differences in fab utilization for manufacturers of discrete and IC products for 2010 emissions for non-Partners. PEVM estimates were adjusted using technology-weighted capacity shares that reflect the relative influence of different utilization. Gas-specific emissions for non-Partners were estimated using the same method as for 2000 through 2006.

2011 and 2012

The fifth and final method for estimating emissions from semiconductor manufacturing covers the period 2011 and 2012, the first years after EPA's Partnership with the semiconductor industry ended in 2010. Manufacturers with the total potential to emit 25,000 mt CO₂ Eq. per year were required to report their emissions to the EPA. This population of manufacturers included Partners of EPA's PFC Reduction/Climate Partnership as well as non-Partners. The population of non-Partner facilities also included manufacturers that use GaAs technology in addition to Si technology. Emissions from the population of manufacturers that were below the reporting threshold were also

¹⁶¹ Special attention was given to the manufacturing capacity of plants that use wafers with 300 mm diameters because the actual capacity of these plants is ramped up to design capacity, typically over a 2–3 year period. To prevent overstating estimates of partner-capacity shares from plants using 300 mm wafers, *design* capacities contained in WFW were replaced with estimates of *actual installed* capacities for 2004 published by Citigroup Smith Barney (2005). Without this correction, the partner share of capacity would be overstated, by approximately 5 percent. For perspective, approximately 95 percent of all new capacity additions in 2004 used 300 mm wafers, and by year-end those plants, on average, could operate at approximately 70 percent of the design capacity. For 2005, actual installed capacities were estimated using an entry in the World Fab Watch database (April 2006 Edition) called “wafers/month, 8-inch equivalent,” which denoted the actual installed capacity instead of the fully-ramped capacity. For 2006, actual installed capacities of new fabs were estimated using an average monthly ramp rate of 1100 wafer starts per month (wspm) derived from various sources such as semiconductor fabtech, industry analysts, and articles in the trade press. The monthly ramp rate was applied from the first-quarter of silicon volume (FQSV) to determine the average design capacity over the 2006 period.

¹⁶² In 2006, the industry trend in co-ownership of manufacturing facilities continued. Several manufacturers, who are Partners, now operate fabs with other manufacturers, who in some cases are also Partners and in other cases are not Partners. Special attention was given to this occurrence when estimating the Partner and non-Partner shares of U.S. manufacturing capacity.

¹⁶³ Two versions of PEVM are used to model non-Partner emissions during this period. For the years 2000 to 2003 PEVM v3.2.0506.0507 was used to estimate non-Partner emissions. During this time, discrete devices did not use PFCs during manufacturing and therefore only memory and logic devices were modeled in the PEVM v3.2.0506.0507. From 2004 onwards, discrete device fabrication started to use PFCs, hence PEVM v4.0.0701.0701, the first version of PEVM to account for PFC emissions from discrete devices, was used to estimate non-Partner emissions for this time period.

¹⁶⁴ EPA considered applying this change to years before 2007, but found that it would be difficult due to the large amount of data (i.e., technology-specific global and non-Partner TMLA) that would have to be examined and manipulated for each year. This effort did not appear to be justified given the relatively small impact of the improvement on the total estimate for 2007 and the fact that the impact of the improvement would likely be lower for earlier years because the estimated share of emissions accounted for by non-Partners is growing as Partners continue to implement emission-reduction efforts.

estimated for 2011 and 2012 using newly developed emission factors and estimates of 2011 and 2012 facility-specific production. Inventory totals reflect the emissions from both populations.

Under EPA's GHGRP, semiconductor manufacturing facilities report emissions of fluorinated GHGs used in etch and clean processes and as heat transfer fluids. They also report N₂O emissions from CVD and other processes. This data was aggregated, by gas, across all semiconductor manufacturing GHGRP reporters to calculate gas-specific emissions for the GHGRP-reporting segment of the U.S. industry.

For the segment of the semiconductor industry that does not meet EPA's GHGRP reporting threshold, and for R&D facilities which are not covered by EPA's GHGRP, emission estimates are based on new emission factors developed by EPA for the fluorinated GHGs used in etch and CVD clean processes. The new emission factors (in units of mass of CO₂ Eq./TMLA) are based on the emissions reported by facilities under EPA's GHGRP and TMLA estimates for these facilities from the *World Fab Forecast* (SEMI 2012 and SEMI 2013). In a refinement of the method used in prior years to estimate emissions for the non-Partner population, different emission factors were developed for different subpopulations of fabs. An analysis of the emission factors of reporting fabs showed that the characteristics that had the largest impacts on emission factors were the technology (e.g., Si of GaAs) used at the fab, whether the fab contained R&D activities, and whether the fab reported using point-of-use fluorinated greenhouse gas abatement. For each of these groups, a population-specific emission factor was obtained using a regression-through-the-origin (RTO) model: facility-reported aggregate emissions of seven fluorinated GHGs (CF₄, C₂F₆, C₃F₈, C₄F₈, CHF₃, SF₆ and NF₃)¹⁶⁵ were regressed against the corresponding TMLA. For each subpopulation, the slope of the RTO model is the emission factor for that subpopulation. To estimate emissions from fabs that are solely doing research and development (R&D) or are Pilot fabs (i.e., fabs that are excluded from subpart I reporting requirements), emission factors were estimated based on GHGRP reporting fabs containing R&D activities. EPA applied a scaling factor of 15 percent to the slope of the RTO model to estimate the emission factor applicable to the non-reporting fabs that are only R&D or Pilot fabs. This was done as R&D activities lead to use of more PFCs for development of chips that are not counted towards the final estimated TMLA. Hence, it is assumed that the fabs with only R&D activities use 15 percent more PFCs per TMLA.

Non-reporting fabs were then broken out into similar subpopulations. Information on the technology and R&D activities of non-reporting fabs was available through the WFF. Information on the use of point-of-use abatement by non-reporting fabs was not available; thus, EPA conservatively assumed that non-reporting facilities did not use point-of-use abatement. The appropriate emission factor was applied to the total TMLA of each subpopulation of non-reporting facilities to estimate the CO₂e emissions of that subpopulation.

Gas-specific, GWP-weighted emissions for each subpopulation of non-reporting facilities were estimated using the corresponding reported distribution of gas-specific, GWP-weighted emissions from which the aggregate emission factors were developed. Estimated in this manner, the non-reporting population accounted for 22 and 27 percent of U.S. emissions in 2011 and 2012, respectively. The GHGRP-reported emissions and the calculated non-reporting population emissions are summed to estimate the total emissions from semiconductor manufacturing.

The methodology used for 2011 and 2012 included, for the first time, emissions from facilities employing Si- and GaAs-using technologies. The use of GaAs technology became evident via analysis of GHGRP emissions and WFF data. However, no adjustment of pre-2011 emissions was made because (1) the use of these technologies appears relatively new, (2) in the aggregate make a relatively small contribution to total industry emissions (i.e., 14 percent in 2012), and (3) would require a large effort to retroactively adjust pre-2011 emissions.

Data Sources

GHGRP reporters estimated their emissions using a default emission factor method established by EPA. This method is very similar to the Tier 2b Method in the *2006 IPCC Guidelines*, but it goes beyond that method by establishing different default emission and by-product generation factors for different wafer sizes (i.e., 300mm vs. 150 and 200mm) and CVD clean subtypes (in situ thermal, in situ thermal, and remote plasma). Partners estimated their emissions using a range of methods. It is assumed that most Partners used a method at least as accurate as the IPCC's Tier 2a Methodology, recommended in the IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Inventories (2006). Estimates of operating plant capacities and characteristics for Partners and non-Partners were derived from the

¹⁶⁵ Only seven gases were aggregated because inclusion of fluorinated GHGs that are not reported in the inventory results in overestimation of emission factor that is applied to the various non-reporting subpopulations.

Semiconductor Equipment and Materials Industry (SEMI) World Fab Forecast (formerly World Fab Watch) database (1996 through 2013) (e.g., Semiconductor Materials and Equipment Industry, 2013). Actual capacity utilizations for 2011 were obtained from Semiconductor International Capacity Statistics (SICAS) (SIA, 2012). Estimates of the number of layers for each linewidth was obtained from International Technology Roadmap for Semiconductors: 2011 Update (Burton and Beizaie 2001, ITRS 2007, ITRS 2008, ITRS 2011). PEVM utilized the World Fab Forecast, SICAS, and ITRS, as well as a historical silicon consumption estimates published by VLSI.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis of this source category was performed using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, the Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique. The equation used to estimate uncertainty is:

$$\text{Total Emissions (E}_T\text{)} = \text{GHGRP Reported Emissions (E}_R\text{)} + \text{Non-GHGRP Reporters Emissions (E}_{NR}\text{)}$$

where E_R and E_{NR} denote totals for the indicated subcategories of emissions.

The uncertainty in E_T presented in Table 4-97 below results from the convolution of two distributions of emissions, each reflecting separate estimates of possible values of E_R and E_{NR} . The approach and methods for estimating each distribution and combining them to arrive at the reported 95 percent CI are described in the remainder of this section.

The uncertainty estimate of E_R , or GHGRP reported emissions, is developed based on gas-specific uncertainty estimates of emissions for two representative model facilities, one processing 200 mm wafers and one processing 300 mm wafers. Uncertainties in emissions for each gas and model facility were developed during the assessment of emission estimation methods for the subpart I GHGRP rulemaking in 2012 (see *Technical Support for Modifications to the Fluorinated Greenhouse Gas Emission Estimation Method Option for Semiconductor Facilities under Subpart I*, docket EPA-HQ-OAR-2011-0028).¹⁶⁶ This analysis did not take into account the use of abatement. For the model facility that processed 200 mm wafers, estimates of uncertainties at a 95 percent CI ranged from ± 29 percent for C_3F_8 to ± 10 percent for CF_4 . For the corresponding model 300 mm facility, estimates of the 95 percent CI ranged from ± 36 percent for C_4F_8 to ± 16 percent for CF_4 . These gas and wafer-specific uncertainty estimates are applied for facilities that did not abate emissions as reported under EPA's GHGRP.

For those facilities reporting abatement of emissions under EPA's GHGRP, estimates of uncertainties for the no abatement model facilities are modified to reflect the use of full abatement (abatement of *all* gases from *all* cleaning and etching equipment) and partial abatement. These assumptions used to develop uncertainties for the partial and full abatement facilities are identical for 200 mm and 300 mm wafer processing facilities. For all facilities reporting gas abatement, a triangular distribution of destruction or removal efficiency is assumed for each gas. For facilities reporting partial abatement, the distribution of destruction efficiencies, for each gas, is assumed to be right triangularly distributed. Consideration of abatement then resulted in four additional model facilities, two (model) 200 mm wafer-processing facilities (one fully and one partially abating each gas) and two (model) 300 mm wafer-processing facilities (one fully and the other partially abating each gas). Gas-specific emission uncertainties were estimated by convolving the distributions of unabated emissions with the appropriate distribution of abatement efficiency for fully and partially abated facilities using a Monte Carlo simulation.

¹⁶⁶ On November 13, 2013, EPA published a final rule revising subpart I (Electronics Manufacturing) of the GHGRP (78 FR 68162). The revised rule includes updated default emission factors and updated default destruction and removal efficiencies that are slightly different from those that semiconductor manufacturers were required to use to report their 2012 emissions. The uncertainty analyses that were performed during the development of the revised rule focused on these updated defaults, but are expected to be reasonably representative of the uncertainties associated with the older defaults, particularly for estimates at the country level. (They may somewhat underestimate the uncertainties associated with the older defaults at the facility level.) For simplicity, the 2012 estimates are assumed to be unbiased although in some cases, the updated (and therefore more representative) defaults are higher or lower than the older defaults. Multiple models and sensitivity scenarios were run for the subpart I analysis. The uncertainty analysis presented here made use of the Input gas and wafer size model (Model 1) under the following conditions: Year = 2010, $f = 20$, $n = SIA3$.

The uncertainty in E_R is obtained by mapping GHGRP-reported gas and wafer-specific emissions to one of the six described model facilities, and then running a Monte Carlo simulation which results in the 95 percent CI for GHGRP reporting facilities (E_R).

The estimate of uncertainty in E_{NR} entailed developing estimates of uncertainties for the emissions factors for each non-reporting sub-category and the corresponding estimates of TMLA.

The uncertainty in TMLA depends on the uncertainty of two variables – an estimate of the uncertainty in the average annual capacity utilization for each level of production of fabs (e.g., full scale or R&D production) and a corresponding estimate of the uncertainty in the number of layers manufactured. For both variables, the distributions of capacity utilizations and number of manufactured layers are assumed triangular for all categories of non-reporting fabs. For production fabs the most probable utilization is assumed to be 89 percent, with the highest and lowest utilization assumed to be 95 percent and 70 percent, respectively. The corresponding values for facilities that manufacture discrete devices are, 84 percent, 95 percent, and 73 percent, respectively, while the values for utilization for R&D facilities, are assumed to be 20 percent, 30 percent, and 10 percent, respectively. For the triangular distributions that govern the number of possible layers manufactured, it is assumed the most probable value is one layer less than reported in the ITRS; the smallest number varied by technology generation between one and two layers less than given in the ITRS and largest number of layers corresponded to the figure given in the ITRS.

The uncertainty bounds for the average capacity utilization and the number of layers manufactured are used as inputs in a separate Monte Carlo simulation to estimate the uncertainty around the TMLA of both individual facilities as well as the total non-reporting TMLA of each sub-population.

The uncertainty around the emission factors for each non-reporting category of facilities is dependent on the uncertainty of the total emissions (MMTCO_{2e} units) and the TMLA of each reporting facility in that category. For each subpopulation of reporting facilities, total emissions were regressed on TMLA (with an intercept forced to zero) for 10,000 emissions and 10,000 TMLA values in a Monte Carlo simulation, which results in 10,000 total regression coefficients (emission factors). The 2.5th and the 97.5th percentile of these emission factors are determined and the bounds are assigned as the percent difference from the estimated emission factor.

For simplicity, the results of the Monte Carlo simulations on the bounds of the gas- and wafer size-specific emissions as well as the TMLA and emission factors are assumed to be normally distributed and the uncertainty bounds are assigned at 1.96 standard deviations around the estimated mean. The departures from normality were observed to be small.

The final step in estimating the uncertainty in emissions of non-reporting facilities is convolving the distribution of emission factors with the distribution of TMLA using Monte Carlo simulation.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-97, which is also obtained by convolving—using Monte Carlo simulation—the distributions of emissions for each reporting and non-reporting facility.. The emissions estimate for total U.S. PFC emissions from semiconductor manufacturing were estimated to be between 3.6 and 3.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This range represents 5 percent below to 5 percent above the 2011 emission estimate of 3.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. This range and the associated percentages apply to the estimate of total emissions rather than those of individual gases. Uncertainties associated with individual gases will be somewhat higher than the aggregate, but were not explicitly modeled.

Table 4-97: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for HFC, PFC, and SF₆ Emissions from Semiconductor Manufacture (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate ^a (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^b (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)			
			Lower Bound ^c	Upper Bound ^c	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
Semiconductor Manufacture	HFC, PFC, and SF ₆	3.7	3.6	3.9	-5%	5%

^a Because the uncertainty analysis covered all emissions (including NF₃), the emission estimate presented here does not match that shown in Table 4-95.

^b Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^c Absolute lower and upper bounds were calculated using the corresponding lower and upper bounds in percentages.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Emissions for 2000 through 2010 were recalculated to ensure time-series consistency. No recalculation methods were applied to emission estimates prior to 2000 because it is assumed that this data is representative of emissions during that time. In previous inventories, non-Partner emissions were estimated based on data from the late 1990s (i.e., the original PEVM emission factor). In looking at new industry emission factors using the GHGRP data as compared to the PEVM emission factor, it is clear there has been a decrease in the amount of fluorinated gases emitted per TMLA over the 2000 to 2011 time period. This is likely due to processes becoming more efficient and the use of new technology, specifically remote chamber clean as opposed to traditional in-situ chamber cleans. The non-Partner portion of total industry emissions was therefore recalculated as described under “2000 through 2006” above. The use of remote chamber clean also introduces change in the types of process gas used. To adjust for the shift in gas usage, gas-specific distribution for years 2000 to 2010 were also updated by interpolating between years 1999 and 2011 as described under “2000 through 2006” above. Additionally, the 2011 emission estimates were revised to incorporate GHGRP data; the previous Inventory estimated 2011 emissions by extrapolating 2010 Partner data and using PEVM for non-Partners.

Planned Improvements

This Inventory has estimates of seven fluorinated gases for semiconductor manufacturing. However, other fluorinated gases (e.g., C₃F₈) are used in relatively smaller, but significant amounts. Previously, emissions data for these other fluorinated gases was not reported through the EPA Partnership. Through EPA's GHGRP, these data, as well as N₂O and heat transfer fluid emission data, are available. Therefore, a point of consideration for future inventories is the inclusion of other fluorinated gases, N₂O, and emissions from heat transfer fluid (HTF) loss to the atmosphere.

N₂O is mainly used for the chemical vapor deposition process. Deposition is a fundamental step in the fabrication of a variety of electronic devices. During deposition, layers of dielectric, barrier, or electrically conductive films are deposited or grown on a wafer or other substrate. Chemical vapor deposition (CVD) enables the deposition of dielectric or metal films. During the CVD process, gases that contain atoms of the material to be deposited react on the wafer surface to form a thin film of solid material. Films deposited by CVD may be silicon oxide, single-layer crystal epitaxial silicon, amorphous silicon, silicon nitride, dielectric anti-reflective coatings, low-k dielectric, aluminum, titanium, titanium nitride, polysilicon, tungsten, refractory metals or silicides. Higher number of layers means more deposition steps are required during the manufacturing stage, leading to more emissions. Emissions from N₂O usage can be estimated by developing an emission factor based on GHGRP-reported data per units of TMLA, as is done with other F-GHGs. N₂O may be the oxidizer of choice during deposition of silicon oxide films. N₂O may also be used in other manufacturing processes.

Fluorinated heat transfer fluids, of which some are liquid perfluorinated compounds, are used for temperature control, device testing, cleaning substrate surfaces and other parts, and soldering in certain types of semiconductor manufacturing production processes. Evaporation of these fluids is a source of fluorinated emissions (EPA 2006). The GHGRP-reported HTF emissions along with WFF database could be used to develop emission factors for identified subpopulations. Further research needs to be done to determine if the same subpopulations identified in developing new emission factors for f-GHGs are applicable or new subpopulations have to be studied as HTFs are used primarily by manufacturers of wafer size 300 mm and above.

Along with more emissions information for semiconductor manufacturing, EPA's GHGRP requires the reporting of emissions from other types of electronics manufacturing, including micro-electro-mechanical systems, flat panel displays, and photovoltaic cells. There currently are no flat panel displays, and photovoltaic cell manufacturing

facilities that are reporting to EPA’s GHGRP, and five reporting MEMs manufacturers. The MEMs manufacturers also report emissions from semiconductor manufacturing and do not distinguish between these two types of manufacturing in their report; thus, emissions from MEMs manufacturers are included in the totals here. EPA may consider including emissions from manufacturing of flat panel displays and photovoltaic cells in future inventories; however, estimation methodologies would need to be developed.

4.24 Electrical Transmission and Distribution (IPCC Source Category 2F7)

The largest use of SF₆, both in the United States and internationally, is as an electrical insulator and interrupter in equipment that transmits and distributes electricity (RAND 2004). The gas has been employed by the electric power industry in the United States since the 1950s because of its dielectric strength and arc-quenching characteristics. It is used in gas-insulated substations, circuit breakers, and other switchgear. Sulfur hexafluoride has replaced flammable insulating oils in many applications and allows for more compact substations in dense urban areas.

Fugitive emissions of SF₆ can escape from gas-insulated substations and switchgear through seals, especially from older equipment. The gas can also be released during equipment manufacturing, installation, servicing, and disposal. Emissions of SF₆ from equipment manufacturing and from electrical transmission and distribution systems were estimated to be 6.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.2 Gg) in 2012. This quantity represents a 77 percent decrease from the estimate for 1990 (see Table 4-98 and Table 4-99). This decrease is believed to have two causes: a sharp increase in the price of SF₆ during the 1990s and a growing awareness of the environmental impact of SF₆ emissions through programs such as EPA’s SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems.

Table 4-98: SF₆ Emissions from Electric Power Systems and Electrical Equipment Manufacturers (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Year	Electric Power Systems	Electrical Equipment Manufacturers	Total
1990	26.3	0.3	26.7
2005	10.2	0.9	11.0
2008	7.2	1.2	8.4
2009	6.9	0.6	7.5
2010	6.4	0.8	7.2
2011	5.9	1.3	7.2
2012	4.8	1.2	6.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 4-99: SF₆ Emissions from Electric Power Systems and Electrical Equipment Manufacturers (Gg)

Year	Emissions
1990	1.1
2005	0.5
2008	0.4
2009	0.3
2010	0.3
2011	0.3
2012	0.3

Methodology

The estimates of emissions from Electrical Transmission and Distribution are comprised of emissions from electric power systems and emissions from the manufacture of electrical equipment. The methodologies for estimating both sets of emissions are described below.

This year's inventory, like the 1990-2011 inventory, incorporates emission estimates from electric power systems reported through EPA's GHGRP. In the most recent year of reporting, utilities were required to submit reports for 2012 and resubmit reports for 2011 with additional data elements, including the decrease in SF₆ inventory, purchases of SF₆, disbursements of SF₆, and net increase in total nameplate capacity of equipment operated. This allowed inclusion of GHGRP data on nameplate capacity and purchases in the inventory.¹⁶⁷

1999 through 2012 Emissions from Electric Power Systems

Emissions from electric power systems from 1999 to 2012 were estimated based on: (1) reporting from utilities participating in EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems (Partners), which began in 1999; (2) reporting from utilities required to report under the EPA's GHGRP, which began in 2012 for emissions occurring in 2011 (GHGRP-Only Reporters); and (3) the relationship between utilities' reported emissions and their transmission miles as reported in the 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010, and 2013 Utility Data Institute (UDI) Directories of Electric Power Producers and Distributors (UDI 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010, 2013), which was applied to the electric power systems that do not report to EPA (Non-Reporters). (Transmission miles are defined as the miles of lines carrying voltages above 34.5 kV).

Partners

Over the period from 1999 to 2012, Partner utilities, which for inventory purposes are defined as utilities that either currently are or previously have been part of the Partnership, represented between 43 percent and 48 percent of total U.S. transmission miles. Partner utilities estimated their emissions using a Tier 3 utility-level mass balance approach (IPCC 2006). If a Partner utility did not provide data for a particular year, emissions were interpolated between years for which data were available or extrapolated based on Partner-specific transmission mile growth rates. In 2012, many Partners reported their emissions through EPA's GHGRP (discussed further below) rather than through the Partnership. In 2012, approximately 0.7 percent of the total emissions attributed to Partner utilities were reported through Partnership reports. Approximately 92 percent of the total emissions attributed to Partner utilities were reported and verified through EPA's GHGRP. Partners without verified 2012 data accounted for approximately 8 percent of the total emissions attributed to Partner utilities.¹⁶⁸

GHGRP-Only Reporters

¹⁶⁷ For GHGRP reporters, an end-of-year nameplate was calculated by summing the beginning of year nameplate capacity (which excludes hermetically sealed-pressure equipment) and the net increase in nameplate capacity (which includes hermetically sealed-pressure equipment). Although there are concerns with summing these two metrics due to their differential use of hermetically-sealed pressure switchgear, this remains the best possible approach for ensuring time series consistency and using an "end-of-year" nameplate capacity estimate.

¹⁶⁸ It should be noted that data reported through the GHGRP must go through a verification process; only data verified as of September 1, 2013 could be used in the emission estimates for 2011 and 2012. For Partners whose GHGRP data was not yet verified, emissions were extrapolated based upon historical Partner-specific transmission mile growth rates, and those Partners are included in the 'non-reporting Partners' category.

For electric power systems, verification involved a series of electronic range, completeness, and algorithm checks for each report submitted. In addition, EPA manually reviewed the reported data and compared each facility's reported transmission miles with the corresponding quantity in the UDI 2013 database (UDI 2013). In the first year of GHGRP reporting, EPA followed up with reporters where the discrepancy between the reported miles and the miles published by UDI was greater than 10 percent, with a goal to improve data quality. Only GHGRP data verified as of September 1, 2013 was included in the emission estimates for 2011 and 2012.

EPA's GHGRP requires users of SF₆ in electric power systems to report emissions if the facility has a total SF₆ nameplate capacity that exceeds 17,820 pounds. (This quantity is the nameplate capacity that would result in annual SF₆ emissions equal to 25,000 metric tons of CO₂ equivalent at the historical emission rate reported under the Partnership.) As under the Partnership, electric power systems that report their SF₆ emissions under EPA's GHGRP are required to use the Tier 3 utility-level mass-balance approach. Many Partners began reporting their emissions through EPA's GHGRP in 2012 because their nameplate capacity exceeded the reporting threshold. Partners who did not report through EPA's GHGRP continued to report through the Partnership.

In addition, many non-Partners began reporting to EPA for the first time through its GHGRP in 2012. Non-Partner emissions reported and verified under EPA's GHGRP were compiled to form a new category of reported data (GHGRP-Only Reporters). GHGRP-Only Reporters accounted for 23 percent of U.S. transmission miles and 15 percent of estimated U.S. emissions from electric power system in 2012.¹⁶⁹

Non-Reporters

Emissions from Non-Reporters (i.e., utilities other than Partners and GHGRP-Only Reporters) in every year since 1999 were estimated using the results of a regression analysis that correlated emissions from reporting utilities (using verified data from both Partners and GHGRP-Only Reporters) with their transmission miles.¹⁷⁰ Two equations were developed, one for "non-large" and one for "large" utilities (i.e., with fewer or greater than 10,000 transmission miles, respectively). The distinction between utility sizes was made because the regression analysis showed that the relationship between emissions and transmission miles differed for non-large and large transmission networks. As noted above, non-Partner emissions were reported to the EPA for the first time through its GHGRP in 2012 (representing 2011 emissions). This data was of particular interest because it provided insight into the emission rate of non-Partners, which previously was assumed to be equal to the historical (1999) emission rate of Partners for both large and non-large utilities.¹⁷¹ The availability of non-Partner emissions estimates allowed the regression analysis to be modified for both groups. Specifically, emissions were estimated for Non-Reporters as follows:

- Non-Reporters, 1999 to 2011: First, the 2011 emission rates (per kg nameplate capacity and per transmission mile) reported by Partners and GHGRP-Only Reporters were reviewed to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between these two groups. Transmission mileage data for 2011 was reported through GHGRP, with the exception of transmission mileage data for Partners that did not report through GHGRP, which was obtained from UDI. It was determined that there is no statistically significant difference between the emission rates of Partners and GHGRP-Only reporters; therefore, Partner and GHGRP-Only reported data for 2011 were combined to develop regression equations to estimate the emissions of Non-Reporters for both "non-large" and "large" utilities. Historical emissions from Non-Reporters for both "non-large" and "large" utilities were estimated by linearly interpolating between the 1999 regression coefficients (based on 1999 Partner data) and the 2011 regression coefficients.
- Non-Reporters, 2012: It was determined that there continued to be no statistically significant difference between the emission rates reported by Partners and by GHGRP-Only Reporters. Therefore, the emissions data from both groups were combined to develop regression equations for 2012.
 - *"Non-large" utilities (less than 10,000 transmission miles):* The regression equation for "non-large" utilities was developed based on the emissions reported by a subset of 47 Partner utilities and 50

¹⁶⁹ It should also be noted that GHGRP-reported emissions from twelve facilities that did not have any associated transmission miles were included in the emissions estimates for 2011. Emissions from these facilities comprise approximately 0.3 percent of total reported and verified emissions. These facilities were not included in the development of the regression equations (discussed further below). EPA is continuing to investigate whether or not these emissions are already implicitly accounted for in the relationship between transmission miles and emissions, and whether to update the regression analysis to better capture emissions from non-reporters that may have zero transmission miles.

¹⁷⁰ In the United States, SF₆ is contained primarily in transmission equipment rated above 34.5 kV.

¹⁷¹ Partners in EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership reduced their emissions by approximately 68 percent from 1999 to 2011 and 74 percent from 1999 to 2012.

GHGRP-Only utilities (representing approximately 44 percent of total U.S. transmission miles for utilities with fewer than 10,000 transmission miles). The regression equation for 2012 is:

$$\text{Emissions (kg)} = 0.23 \times \text{Transmission Miles}$$

- *“Large” utilities (more than 10,000 transmission miles):* The regression equation was developed based on the emissions reported by a subset of 13 Partner utilities and 7 non-Partner utilities (representing approximately 88 percent of total U.S. transmission miles for utilities with greater than 10,000 transmission miles). The regression equation for 2012 is:

$$\text{Emissions (kg)} = 0.27 \times \text{Transmission Miles}$$

Table 4-100 below shows the percentage of transmission miles covered by reporters (i.e., associated with reported data) and the regression coefficient for both large and non-large reporters for 1999 (the first year data was reported), 2011 (the first year with GHGRP reported data), and 2012 (the most recent year of data).

Table 4-100 Transmission Mile Coverage and Regression Coefficients for Large and Non-Large Utilities, Percent

	1999		2011		2012	
	Non-large	Large	Non-large	Large	Non-large	Large
Percentage of Miles Covered by Reporters	31	86	45	97	44	88
Regression Coefficient^a	0.89	0.58	0.33	0.26	0.23	0.27

^aRegression coefficient is defined as emissions (in kg) divided by transmission miles.

The coefficient for non-large utilities has dropped rather dramatically between 2011 and 2012 from 0.33 to 0.23 due to a large decrease in Partner and GHGRP-only reported emissions, primarily from the largest emitters, and an increase in transmission miles.

Data on transmission miles for each Non-Reporter for the years 2000, 2003, 2006, and 2009, and 2012 were obtained from the 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010, and 2013 UDI Directories of Electric Power Producers and Distributors, respectively (UDI 2001, 2004, 2007, 2010, 2013). The U.S. transmission system grew by over 25,000 miles between 2000 and 2003 and by only 2,400 miles between 2003 and 2006. These periodic increases are assumed to have occurred gradually. Therefore, transmission mileage was assumed to increase at an annual rate of 1.3 percent between 2000 and 2003 and 0.1 percent between 2003 and 2006. This growth rate grew to 2.8 percent from 2006 to 2009 as transmission miles increased by 56,000 miles (approximately). The annual growth rate for 2009 through 2012 was calculated to be 2.7 percent as transmission miles grew by approximately 58,000 during this time period.

Total Industry Emissions

As a final step, total electric power system emissions from 1999 through 2012 were determined for each year by summing the Partner reported and estimated emissions (reported data was available through the EPA’s SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems), the GHGRP-Only reported emissions, and the non-reporting utilities’ emissions (determined using the regression equations).

1990 through 1998 Emissions from Electric Power Systems

Because most utilities participating in the Partnership reported emissions only for 1999 through 2011, modeling was used to estimate SF₆ emissions from electric power systems for the years 1990 through 1998. To perform this modeling, U.S. emissions were assumed to follow the same trajectory as global emissions from this source during the 1990 to 1999 period. To estimate global emissions, the RAND survey of global SF₆ sales were used, together with the following equation for estimating emissions, which is derived from the mass-balance equation for chemical emissions (Volume 3, Equation 7.3) in the IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC

2006).¹⁷² (Although equation 7.3 of the IPCC Guidelines appears in the discussion of substitutes for ozone-depleting substances, it is applicable to emissions from any long-lived pressurized equipment that is periodically serviced during its lifetime.)

Emissions (kilograms SF₆) = SF₆ purchased to refill existing equipment (kilograms) + nameplate capacity of retiring equipment (kilograms)¹⁷³

Note that the above equation holds whether the gas from retiring equipment is released or recaptured; if the gas is recaptured, it is used to refill existing equipment, thereby lowering the amount of SF₆ purchased by utilities for this purpose.

Gas purchases by utilities and equipment manufacturers from 1961 through 2003 are available from the RAND (2004) survey. To estimate the quantity of SF₆ released or recovered from retiring equipment, the nameplate capacity of retiring equipment in a given year was assumed to equal 81.2 percent of the amount of gas purchased by electrical equipment manufacturers 40 years previous (e.g., in 2000, the nameplate capacity of retiring equipment was assumed to equal 81.2 percent of the gas purchased in 1960). The remaining 18.8 percent was assumed to have been emitted at the time of manufacture. The 18.8 percent emission factor is an average of IPCC default SF₆ emission rates for Europe and Japan for 1995 (IPCC 2006). The 40-year lifetime for electrical equipment is also based on IPCC (2006). The results of the two components of the above equation were then summed to yield estimates of global SF₆ emissions from 1990 through 1999.

U.S. emissions between 1990 and 1999 are assumed to follow the same trajectory as global emissions during this period. To estimate U.S. emissions, global emissions for each year from 1990 through 1998 were divided by the estimated global emissions from 1999. The result was a time series of factors that express each year's global emissions as a multiple of 1999 global emissions. Historical U.S. emissions were estimated by multiplying the factor for each respective year by the estimated U.S. emissions of SF₆ from electric power systems in 1999 (estimated to be 15.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.).

Two factors may affect the relationship between the RAND sales trends and actual global emission trends. One is utilities' inventories of SF₆ in storage containers. When SF₆ prices rise, utilities are likely to deplete internal inventories before purchasing new SF₆ at the higher price, in which case SF₆ sales will fall more quickly than emissions. On the other hand, when SF₆ prices fall, utilities are likely to purchase more SF₆ to rebuild inventories, in which case sales will rise more quickly than emissions. This effect was accounted for by applying 3-year smoothing to utility SF₆ sales data. The other factor that may affect the relationship between the RAND sales trends and actual global emissions is the level of imports from and exports to Russia and China. SF₆ production in these countries is not included in the RAND survey and is not accounted for in any another manner by RAND. However, atmospheric studies confirm that the downward trend in estimated global emissions between 1995 and 1998 was real (see the Uncertainty discussion below).

1990 through 2012 Emissions from Manufacture of Electrical Equipment

The 1990 to 2012 emission estimates for original equipment manufacturers (OEMs) were derived by assuming that manufacturing emissions equal 10 percent of the quantity of SF₆ provided with new equipment. The quantity of SF₆ provided with new equipment was estimated based on statistics compiled by the National Electrical Manufacturers Association (NEMA). These statistics were provided for 1990 to 2000; the quantities of SF₆ provided with new equipment for 2001 to 2012 were estimated using Partner reported data and the total industry SF₆ nameplate capacity estimate (147.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012). Specifically, the ratio of new nameplate capacity to total nameplate capacity of a subset of Partners for which new nameplate capacity data was available from 1999 to 2012 was calculated. These ratios were then multiplied by the total industry nameplate capacity estimate for each year to derive the amount of SF₆ provided with new equipment for the entire industry. The 10 percent emission rate is the average of the "ideal" and "realistic" manufacturing emission rates (4 percent and 17 percent, respectively)

¹⁷² Ideally, sales to utilities in the U.S. between 1990 and 1999 would be used as a model. However, this information was not available. There were only two U.S. manufacturers of SF₆ during this time period, so it would not have been possible to conceal sensitive sales information by aggregation.

¹⁷³ Nameplate capacity is defined as the amount of SF₆ within fully charged electrical equipment.

identified in a paper prepared under the auspices of the International Council on Large Electric Systems (CIGRE) in February 2002 (O’Connell et al. 2002).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

To estimate the uncertainty associated with emissions of SF₆ from Electrical Transmission and Distribution, uncertainties associated with four quantities were estimated: (1) emissions from Partners, (2) emissions from GHGRP-Only Reporters, (3) emissions from Non-Reporters, and (4) emissions from manufacturers of electrical equipment. A Monte Carlo analysis was then applied to estimate the overall uncertainty of the emissions estimate.

Total emissions from the SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership include emissions from both reporting (through the Partnership or GHGRP) and non-reporting Partners. For reporting Partners, individual Partner-reported SF₆ data was assumed to have an uncertainty of 10 percent. Based on a Monte Carlo analysis, the cumulative uncertainty of all Partner-reported data was estimated to be 2.5 percent. The uncertainty associated with extrapolated or interpolated emissions from non-reporting Partners was assumed to be 20 percent.

For GHGRP-Only Reporters, reported SF₆ data was assumed to have an uncertainty of 20 percent.¹⁷⁴ Based on a Monte Carlo analysis, the cumulative uncertainty of all GHGRP-Only reported data was estimated to be 5.2 percent.

There are two sources of uncertainty associated with the regression equations used to estimate emissions in 2012 from Non-Reporters: (1) uncertainty in the coefficients (as defined by the regression standard error estimate), and (2) the uncertainty in total transmission miles for Non-Reporters. Uncertainties were also estimated regarding (1) the quantity of SF₆ supplied with equipment by equipment manufacturers, which is projected from Partner provided nameplate capacity data and industry SF₆ nameplate capacity estimates, and (2) the manufacturers’ SF₆ emissions rate.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 4-101. Electrical Transmission and Distribution SF₆ emissions were estimated to be between 4.9 and 7.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 18 percent below and 25 percent above the emission estimate of 6.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 4-101: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for SF₆ Emissions from Electrical Transmission and Distribution (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to 2012 Emission Estimate ^a (%)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	SF ₆	6.0	4.9	7.5	-18%	+25%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

In addition to the uncertainty quantified above, there is uncertainty associated with using global SF₆ sales data to estimate U.S. emission trends from 1990 through 1999. However, the trend in global emissions implied by sales of SF₆ appears to reflect the trend in global emissions implied by changing SF₆ concentrations in the atmosphere. That is, emissions based on global sales declined by 29 percent between 1995 and 1998 (RAND 2004), and emissions based on atmospheric measurements declined by 17 percent over the same period (Levin et al. 2010).

Several pieces of evidence indicate that U.S. SF₆ emissions were reduced as global emissions were reduced. First, the decreases in sales and emissions coincided with a sharp increase in the price of SF₆ that occurred in the mid-1990s and that affected the United States as well as the rest of the world. A representative from DILO, a major manufacturer of SF₆ recycling equipment, stated that most U.S. utilities began recycling rather than venting SF₆ within two years of the price rise. Finally, the emissions reported by the one U.S. utility that reported its emissions

¹⁷⁴ Uncertainty is assumed to be higher for the GHGRP-Only category, because 2011 is the first year that those utilities have reported to EPA.

for all the years from 1990 through 1999 under the Partnership showed a downward trend beginning in the mid-1990s.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

The historical emissions estimated for this source category have undergone significant revisions. First, in the current inventory, SF₆ emission estimates for the period 1990 through 2011 were updated relative to the previous report based on revisions to interpolated and extrapolated non-reported Partner data and transmission mile data from UDI. Second, the previously-described interpolation between 1999 and 2011 regression coefficients to estimate emissions from non-reporting utilities with fewer than 10,000 transmission miles was updated using revised GHGRP reports, which impacted historical estimates for the period 2000 through 2011. Third, the previously-described interpolation between 1999 and 2011 regression coefficients to estimate emissions from non-reporting utilities with greater than 10,000 transmission miles significantly impacted historical estimates for the period 2000 through 2011. Previously, a conservative coefficient had been used to estimate non-Partner emissions for the period 2000 through 2011 that proved too high once GHGRP-reported data was analyzed for the 2011 reporting year.

Additionally, changes were made to the internal methodology for estimating Non-Reporter nameplate capacity. In 2012, nameplate capacity reported through GHGRP was accessible for the first time. Therefore, the nameplate of GHGRP-Only Reporters could be separated from Non-Reporters. In order to do this, new leak rates were estimated for Non-Reporters in 2011 and 2012 using Partner data, and interpolated back through 1999 to calculate Non-Reporter nameplate capacity over the entire time series.

As a result of the above changes, SF₆ emissions from electrical transmission and distribution decreased by 5 percent for 2011 relative to the previous report.

Planned Improvements

EPA is exploring the use of OEM data from GHGRP subpart SS to use for future inventory reports instead of estimating those emissions based on elements reported through subpart DD and Partner data. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.¹⁷⁵

Box 4-2: Potential Emission Estimates of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆

Emissions of HFCs, PFCs and SF₆ from industrial processes can be estimated in two ways, either as potential emissions or as actual emissions. Emission estimates in this chapter are “actual emissions,” which are defined by the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997) as estimates that take into account the time lag between consumption and emissions. In contrast, “potential emissions” are defined to be equal to the amount of a chemical consumed in a country, minus the amount of a chemical recovered for destruction or export in the year of consideration. Potential emissions will generally be greater for a given year than actual emissions, since some amount of chemical consumed will be stored in products or equipment and will not be emitted to the atmosphere until a later date, if ever. Although actual emissions are considered to be the more accurate estimation approach for a single year, estimates of potential emissions are provided for informational purposes.

Separate estimates of potential emissions were not made for industrial processes that fall into the following categories:

¹⁷⁵ See <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdfiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

- *By-product emissions.* Some emissions do not result from the consumption or use of a chemical, but are the unintended by-products of another process. For such emissions, which include emissions of CF₄ and C₂F₆ from aluminum production and of HFC-23 from HCFC-22 production, the distinction between potential and actual emissions is not relevant.
- *Potential emissions that equal actual emissions.* For some sources, such as magnesium production and processing, no delay between consumption and emission is assumed and, consequently, no destruction of the chemical takes place. In this case, actual emissions equal potential emissions.

Table 4-102 presents potential emission estimates for HFCs and PFCs from the substitution of ozone depleting substances, HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ from semiconductor manufacture, and SF₆ from magnesium production and processing and electrical transmission and distribution.¹⁷⁶ Potential emissions associated with the substitution for ozone depleting substances were calculated using the EPA's Vintaging Model. Estimates of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ consumed by semiconductor manufacture were developed by dividing chemical-by-chemical emissions by the appropriate chemical-specific emission factors from the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance (Tier 2c)*. Estimates of CF₄ consumption were adjusted to account for the conversion of other chemicals into CF₄ during the semiconductor manufacturing process, again using the default factors from the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance*. Potential SF₆ emissions estimates for electrical transmission and distribution were developed using U.S. utility purchases of SF₆ for electrical equipment. From 1999 through 2007, estimates were obtained from reports submitted by participants in EPA's SF₆ Emission Reduction Partnership for Electric Power Systems. U.S. utility purchases of SF₆ for electrical equipment from 1990 through 1998 were backcasted based on world sales of SF₆ to utilities. Purchases of SF₆ by utilities were added to SF₆ purchases by electrical equipment manufacturers to obtain total SF₆ purchases by the electrical equipment sector.

Table 4-102: 2012 Potential and Actual Emissions of HFCs, PFCs, and SF₆ from Selected Sources (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source	Potential	Actual
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	272.4	146.8
Aluminum Production	NA	2.5
HCFC-22 Production	NA	4.3
Semiconductor Manufacture	12.92	3.7
Magnesium Production and Processing	1.7	1.7
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	15.7	6.0

- Not applicable.

4.25 Industrial Sources of Indirect Greenhouse Gases

In addition to the main greenhouse gases addressed above, many industrial processes generate emissions of indirect greenhouse gases. Total emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) from non-energy industrial processes from 1990 to 2012 are reported in Table 4-103.

Table 4-103: NO_x, CO, and NMVOC Emissions from Industrial Processes (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
NO_x	591	566	510	488	466	444	444
Other Industrial Processes	343	434	377	356	335	315	315
Metals Processing	88	60	72	69	67	64	64
Chemical and Allied Product	152	55	50	48	47	45	45

¹⁷⁶ See Annex 5 for a discussion of sources of SF₆ emissions excluded from the actual emissions estimates in this report.

Manufacturing							
Storage and Transport	3	15	9	12	15	17	17
Miscellaneous*	5	2	2	2	2	3	3
CO	4,125	1,553	1,376	1,326	1,277	1,232	1,232
Metals Processing	2,395	752	762	740	718	695	695
Other Industrial Processes	487	483	387	359	332	305	305
Chemical and Allied Product							
Manufacturing	1,073	189	166	161	156	152	152
Storage and Transport	69	97	16	19	21	24	24
Miscellaneous*	101	32	45	47	49	56	56
NMVOCs	2,422	1,982	1,548	1,544	1,540	1,538	1,538
Storage and Transport	1,352	1,293	1,082	1,090	1,099	1,107	1,107
Other Industrial Processes	364	414	329	318	308	298	298
Chemical and Allied Product							
Manufacturing	575	213	80	77	74	72	72
Metals Processing	111	45	34	33	32	31	31
Miscellaneous*	20	17	24	25	26	30	30

* Miscellaneous includes the following categories: catastrophic/accidental release, other combustion, health services, cooling towers, and fugitive dust. It does not include agricultural fires or slash/prescribed burning, which are accounted for under the Field Burning of Agricultural Residues source.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Emission estimates for 1990 through 2012 were obtained from data published on the National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site (EPA 2013), and disaggregated based on EPA (2003). Emission estimates for 2012 for non-EGU and non-mobile sources are held constant from 2011 in EPA (2013). Emissions were calculated either for individual categories or for many categories combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of raw material processed) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual categories from various agencies. Depending on the category, these basic activity data may include data on production, fuel deliveries, raw material processed, etc.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which together relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, AP-42 (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA databases.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainties in these estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors and activity data used. A quantitative uncertainty analysis was not performed.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

5. Solvent and Other Product Use

Greenhouse gas emissions are produced as a by-product of various solvent and other product uses. In the United States, emissions from Nitrous Oxide (N₂O) Product Uses, the only source of greenhouse gas emissions from this sector, accounted for less than 0.1 percent of total U.S. anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions on a CO₂ equivalent basis in 2012 (see Table 5-1). Indirect greenhouse gas emissions also result from solvent and other product use, and are presented in Table 5-5 in gigagrams (Gg).

Table 5-1: N₂O Emissions from Solvent and Other Product Use

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
N ₂ O from Product Uses							
Tg CO ₂ Eq.	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Gg	14	14	14	14	14	14	14

5.1 Nitrous Oxide from Product Uses (IPCC Source Category 3D)

N₂O is a clear, colorless, oxidizing liquefied gas, with a slightly sweet odor which is used in a wide variety of specialized product uses and applications. The amount of N₂O that is actually emitted depends upon the specific product use or application.

There are a total of three N₂O production facilities currently operating in the United States (Ottinger 2014). N₂O is primarily used in carrier gases with oxygen to administer more potent inhalation anesthetics for general anesthesia, and as an anesthetic in various dental and veterinary applications. The second main use of N₂O is as a propellant in pressure and aerosol products, the largest application being pressure-packaged whipped cream. Small quantities of N₂O also are used in the following applications:

- Oxidizing agent and etchant used in semiconductor manufacturing;
- Oxidizing agent used, with acetylene, in atomic absorption spectrometry;
- Production of sodium azide, which is used to inflate airbags;
- Fuel oxidant in auto racing; and
- Oxidizing agent in blowtorches used by jewelers and others (Heydorn 1997).

Production of N₂O in 2012 was approximately 15 Gg (Table 5-2).

Table 5-2: N₂O Production (Gg)

Year	Gg
1990	16

2005	15
2008	15
2009	15
2010	15
2011	15
2012	15

N₂O emissions were 4.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (14 Gg) in 2012 (Table 5-3). Production of N₂O stabilized during the 1990s because medical markets had found other substitutes for anesthetics, and more medical procedures were being performed on an outpatient basis using local anesthetics that do not require N₂O. The use of N₂O as a propellant for whipped cream has also stabilized due to the increased popularity of cream products packaged in reusable plastic tubs (Heydorn 1997).

Table 5-3: N₂O Emissions from N₂O Product Usage (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	4.4	14
2005	4.4	14
2008	4.4	14
2009	4.4	14
2010	4.4	14
2011	4.4	14
2012	4.4	14

Methodology

Emissions from N₂O product uses were estimated using the following equation:

$$E_{pu} = \sum_a (P \times S_a \times ER_a)$$

where,

E_{pu}	=	N ₂ O emissions from product uses, metric tons
P	=	Total U.S. production of N ₂ O, metric tons
a	=	specific application
S_a	=	Share of N ₂ O usage by application a
ER_a	=	Emission rate for application a , percent

The share of total quantity of N₂O usage by end use represents the share of national N₂O produced that is used by the specific subcategory (i.e., anesthesia, food processing, etc.). In 2012, the medical/dental industry used an estimated 89.5 percent of total N₂O produced, followed by food processing propellants at 6.5 percent. All other categories combined used the remainder of the N₂O produced. This subcategory breakdown has changed only slightly over the past decade. For instance, the small share of N₂O usage in the production of sodium azide has declined significantly during the 1990s. Due to the lack of information on the specific time period of the phase-out in this market subcategory, most of the N₂O usage for sodium azide production is assumed to have ceased after 1996, with the majority of its small share of the market assigned to the larger medical/dental consumption subcategory (Heydorn 1997). The N₂O was allocated across the following categories: medical applications, food processing propellant, and sodium azide production (pre-1996). A usage emissions rate was then applied for each sector to estimate the amount of N₂O emitted.

Only the medical/dental and food propellant subcategories were estimated to release emissions into the atmosphere, and therefore these subcategories were the only usage subcategories with emission rates. For the medical/dental subcategory, due to the poor solubility of N₂O in blood and other tissues, none of the N₂O is assumed to be metabolized during anesthesia and quickly leaves the body in exhaled breath. Therefore, an emission factor of 100 percent was used for this subcategory (IPCC 2006). For N₂O used as a propellant in pressurized and aerosol food products, none of the N₂O is reacted during the process and all of the N₂O is emitted to the atmosphere, resulting in an emission factor of 100 percent for this subcategory (IPCC 2006). For the remaining subcategories, all of the N₂O is consumed/reacted during the process, and therefore the emission rate was considered to be zero percent (Tupman 2002).

The 1990 through 1992 N₂O production data were obtained from SRI Consulting’s Nitrous Oxide, North America report (Heydorn 1997). N₂O production data for 1993 through 1995 were not available. Production data for 1996 was specified as a range in two data sources (Heydorn 1997, Tupman 2002). In particular, for 1996, Heydorn (1997) estimates N₂O production to range between 13.6 and 18.1 thousand metric tons. Tupman (2003) provided a narrower range (15.9 to 18.1 thousand metric tons) for 1996 that falls within the production bounds described by Heydorn (1997). Tupman (2003) data are considered more industry-specific and current. Therefore, the midpoint of the narrower production range was used to estimate N₂O emissions for years 1993 through 2001 (Tupman 2003). The 2002 and 2003 N₂O production data were obtained from the Compressed Gas Association Nitrous Oxide Fact Sheet and Nitrous Oxide Abuse Hotline (CGA 2002, 2003). These data were also provided as a range. For example, in 2003, CGA (2003) estimates N₂O production to range between 13.6 and 15.9 thousand metric tons. Due to the unavailability of data, production estimates for years 2004 through 2012 were held constant at the 2003 value.

The 1996 share of the total quantity of N₂O used by each subcategory was obtained from SRI Consulting’s Nitrous Oxide, North America report (Heydorn 1997). The 1990 through 1995 share of total quantity of N₂O used by each subcategory was kept the same as the 1996 number provided by SRI Consulting. The 1997 through 2001 share of total quantity of N₂O usage by sector was obtained from communication with a N₂O industry expert (Tupman 2002). The 2002 and 2003 share of total quantity of N₂O usage by sector was obtained from CGA (2002, 2003). Due to the unavailability of data, the share of total quantity of N₂O usage data for years 2004 through 2012 was assumed to equal the 2003 value. The emissions rate for the food processing propellant industry was obtained from SRI Consulting’s Nitrous Oxide, North America report (Heydorn 1997), and confirmed by a N₂O industry expert (Tupman 2002). The emissions rate for all other subcategories was obtained from communication with a N₂O industry expert (Tupman 2002). The emissions rate for the medical/dental subcategory was obtained from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The overall uncertainty associated with the 2012 N₂O emission estimate from N₂O product usage was calculated using the IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (2006) Tier 2 methodology. Uncertainty associated with the parameters used to estimate N₂O emissions include production data, total market share of each end use, and the emission factors applied to each end use, respectively.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 5-4. N₂O emissions from N₂O product usage were estimated to be between 3.3 and 5.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of approximately 24 percent below to 24 percent above the emission estimate of 4.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 5-4: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for N₂O Emissions from N₂O Product Usage (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
N ₂ O Product Usage	N ₂ O	4.4	3.3	5.4	-24%	+24%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Furthermore, methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time-series are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Planned Improvements

Planned improvements include a continued evaluation of alternative production statistics for cross verification, a reassessment of N₂O product use subcategories to accurately represent trends, investigation of production and use cycles, and the potential need to incorporate a time lag between production and ultimate product use and resulting release of N₂O. Additionally, planned improvements include considering imports and exports of N₂O for product uses.

Future inventories will examine data from EPA’s GHGRP to improve the emission estimates for the N₂O product use subcategory. Particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency, as the facility-level reporting data from EPA’s GHGRP are not available for all inventory years as reported in this Inventory.

5.2 Indirect Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Solvent Use

The use of solvents and other chemical products can result in emissions of various ozone precursors (i.e., indirect greenhouse gases).¹⁷⁷ Non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), commonly referred to as “hydrocarbons,” are the primary gases emitted from most processes employing organic or petroleum based solvents. As some of industrial applications also employ thermal incineration as a control technology, combustion by-products, such as carbon monoxide (CO) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x), are also reported with this source category. In the United States, emissions from solvents are primarily the result of solvent evaporation, whereby the lighter hydrocarbon molecules in the solvents escape into the atmosphere. The evaporation process varies depending on different solvent uses and solvent types. The major categories of solvent uses include: degreasing, graphic arts, surface coating, other industrial uses of solvents (i.e., electronics, etc.), dry cleaning, and non-industrial uses (i.e., uses of paint thinner, etc.).

Total emissions of NO_x, NMVOCs, and CO from 1990 to 2012 are reported in Table 5-5.

Table 5-5: Emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC from Solvent Use (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
NO_x	1	3	4	3	2	1	1
Surface Coating	1	3	4	3	2	1	1
Graphic Arts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Degreasing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Dry Cleaning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other Industrial Processes ^a	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Non-Industrial Processes ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other	NA	+	+	+	+	+	+
CO	5	2	6	5	3	1	1
Surface Coating	+	2	6	5	3	1	1

¹⁷⁷ Solvent usage in the United States also results in the emission of small amounts of hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) and hydrofluoroethers (HFEs), which are included under Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances in the Industrial Processes chapter.

Other Industrial Processes ^a	4	+	+	+	+	+	+
Dry Cleaning	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Degreasing	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Graphic Arts	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Non-Industrial Processes ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other	NA	+	+	+	+	+	+
NMVOCs	5,216	3,851	2,992	2,838	2,684	2,531	2,531
Surface Coating	2,289	1,578	1,226	1,163	1,100	1,037	1,037
Non-Industrial Processes ^b	1,724	1,446	1,123	1,066	1,008	950	950
Degreasing	675	280	218	207	196	184	184
Dry Cleaning	195	230	179	170	160	151	151
Graphic Arts	249	194	150	143	135	127	127
Other Industrial Processes ^a	85	88	68	65	61	58	58
Other	+	36	28	26	25	24	24

^a Includes rubber and plastics manufacturing, and other miscellaneous applications.

^b Includes cutback asphalt, pesticide application adhesives, consumer solvents, and other miscellaneous applications.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

NA: Not available

Methodology

Emissions were calculated by aggregating solvent use data based on information relating to solvent uses from different applications such as degreasing, graphic arts, etc. Emission factors for each consumption category were then applied to the data to estimate emissions. For example, emissions from surface coatings were mostly due to solvent evaporation as the coatings solidify. By applying the appropriate solvent-specific emission factors to the amount of solvents used for surface coatings, an estimate of emissions was obtained. Emissions of CO and NO_x result primarily from thermal and catalytic incineration of solvent-laden gas streams from painting booths, printing operations, and oven exhaust.

Emission estimates for 1990 through 2012 were obtained from data published on the National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site (EPA 2013), and disaggregated based on EPA (2003). Emission estimates for 2012 for non-EGU and non-mobile sources are held constant from 2011 in EPA (2013). Emissions were calculated either for individual categories or for many categories combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of solvent purchased) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual applications from various agencies.

Activity data were used in conjunction with emission factors, which together relate the quantity of emissions to the activity. Emission factors are generally available from the EPA's Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, AP-42 (EPA 1997). The EPA currently derives the overall emission control efficiency of a source category from a variety of information sources, including published reports, the 1985 National Acid Precipitation and Assessment Program emissions inventory, and other EPA databases.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

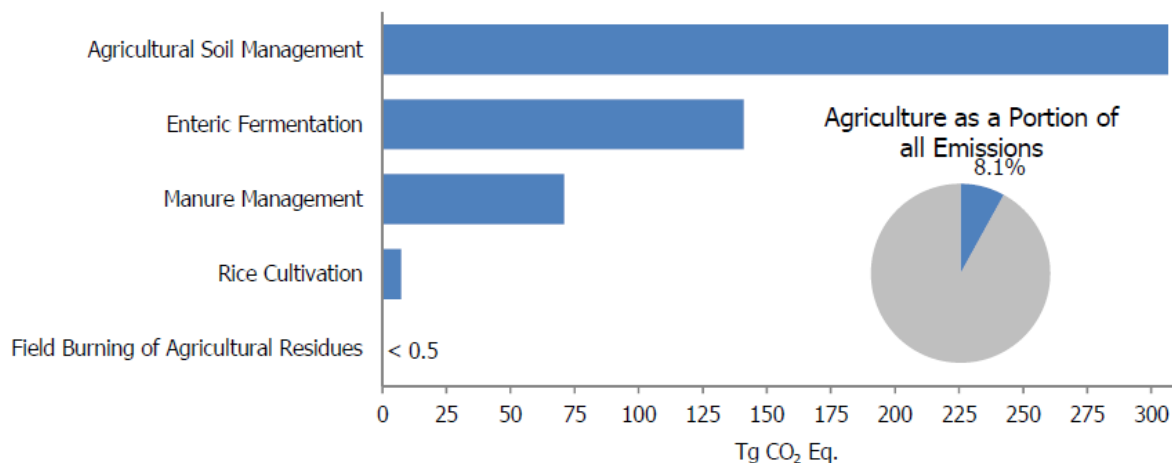
Uncertainties in these estimates are partly due to the accuracy of the emission factors used and the reliability of correlations between activity data and actual emissions.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

6. Agriculture

Agricultural activities contribute directly to emissions of greenhouse gases through a variety of processes. This chapter provides an assessment of non-carbon-dioxide emissions from the following source categories: enteric fermentation in domestic livestock, livestock manure management, rice cultivation, agricultural soil management, and field burning of agricultural residues (see Figure 6-1). Carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions and removals from agriculture-related land-use activities, such as liming of agricultural soils and conversion of grassland to cultivated land, are presented in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter. Carbon dioxide emissions from on-farm energy use are accounted for in the Energy chapter.

Figure 6-1: 2012 Agriculture Chapter Greenhouse Gas Emission Sources



In 2012, the Agriculture sector was responsible for emissions of 526.3 teragrams of CO₂ equivalents (Tg CO₂ Eq.), or 8.1 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. Methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) were the primary greenhouse gases emitted by agricultural activities. Methane emissions from enteric fermentation and manure management represent 25.0 percent and 9.4 percent of total CH₄ emissions from anthropogenic activities, respectively. Of all domestic animal types, beef and dairy cattle were by far the largest emitters of CH₄. Rice cultivation and field burning of agricultural residues were minor sources of CH₄. Agricultural soil management activities such as fertilizer application and other cropping practices were the largest source of U.S. N₂O emissions, accounting for 74.8 percent. Manure management and field burning of agricultural residues were also small sources of N₂O emissions.

Table 6-1 and Table 6-2 present emission estimates for the Agriculture sector. Between 1990 and 2012, CH₄ emissions from agricultural activities increased by 13.6 percent, while N₂O emissions fluctuated from year to year, but overall increased by 9.5 percent.

Table 6-1: Emissions from Agriculture (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	177.3	197.7	206.5	204.7	206.2	202.4	201.5
Enteric Fermentation	137.9	142.5	147.0	146.1	144.9	143.0	141.0
Manure Management	31.5	47.6	51.5	50.5	51.8	52.0	52.9
Rice Cultivation	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.9	9.3	7.1	7.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
N₂O	296.6	314.5	336.9	334.2	327.9	325.8	324.7
Agricultural Soil Management	282.1	297.3	319.0	316.4	310.1	307.8	306.6
Manure Management	14.4	17.1	17.8	17.7	17.8	18.0	18.0
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	473.9	512.2	543.4	538.9	534.2	528.3	526.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-2: Emissions from Agriculture (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	8,445	9,416	9,835	9,749	9,820	9,638	9,597
Enteric Fermentation	6,566	6,785	6,999	6,956	6,898	6,809	6,714
Manure Management	1,499	2,265	2,452	2,403	2,466	2,478	2,519
Rice Cultivation	366	358	370	378	444	339	351
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	13	9	13	12	11	12	12
N₂O	957	1,014	1,087	1,078	1,058	1,051	1,047
Agricultural Soil Management	910	959	1,029	1,021	1,000	993	989
Manure Management	46	55	57	57	57	58	58
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Less than 0.5 Gg.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

6.1 Enteric Fermentation (IPCC Source Category 4A)

Methane is produced as part of normal digestive processes in animals. During digestion, microbes resident in an animal's digestive system ferment food consumed by the animal. This microbial fermentation process, referred to as enteric fermentation, produces CH₄ as a byproduct, which can be exhaled or eructated by the animal. The amount of CH₄ produced and emitted by an individual animal depends primarily upon the animal's digestive system, and the amount and type of feed it consumes.

Ruminant animals (e.g., cattle, buffalo, sheep, goats, and camels) are the major emitters of CH₄ because of their unique digestive system. Ruminants possess a rumen, or large "fore-stomach," in which microbial fermentation breaks down the feed they consume into products that can be absorbed and metabolized. The microbial fermentation that occurs in the rumen enables them to digest coarse plant material that non-ruminant animals cannot. Ruminant animals, consequently, have the highest CH₄ emissions per unit of body mass among all animal types.

Non-ruminant animals (e.g., swine, horses, and mules and asses) also produce CH₄ emissions through enteric fermentation, although this microbial fermentation occurs in the large intestine. These non-ruminants emit significantly less CH₄ on a per-animal-mass basis than ruminants because the capacity of the large intestine to produce CH₄ is lower.

In addition to the type of digestive system, an animal's feed quality and feed intake also affect CH₄ emissions. In general, lower feed quality and/or higher feed intake leads to higher CH₄ emissions. Feed intake is positively correlated to animal size, growth rate, level of activity and production (e.g., milk production, wool growth, pregnancy, or work). Therefore, feed intake varies among animal types as well as among different management practices for individual animal types (e.g., animals in feedlots or grazing on pasture).

Methane emission estimates from enteric fermentation are provided in Table 6-3 and Table 6-4. Total livestock CH₄ emissions in 2012 were 141.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6,714 Gg). Beef cattle remain the largest contributor of CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation, accounting for 71 percent in 2012. Emissions from dairy cattle in 2012 accounted for 25 percent, and the remaining emissions were from horses, sheep, swine, goats, American bison, mules and asses.

From 1990 to 2012, emissions from enteric fermentation have increased by 2.3 percent. While emissions generally follow trends in cattle populations, over the long term there are exceptions as population decreases have been coupled with production increases. For example, beef cattle emissions increased 0.6 percent from 1990 to 2012, while beef cattle populations actually declined by 5 percent and beef production increased 14 percent (USDA 2013), and while dairy emissions increased 6 percent over the entire time series, the population has declined by 2 percent and milk production increased 36 percent (USDA 2013). This indicates that while emission factors per head are increasing, emission factors per unit of product are going down. Generally, from 1990 to 1995 emissions increased and then decreased from 1996 to 2004. These trends were mainly due to fluctuations in beef cattle populations and increased digestibility of feed for feedlot cattle. Emissions generally increased from 2005 to 2007, as both dairy and beef populations underwent increases and the literature for dairy cow diets indicated a trend toward a decrease in feed digestibility for those years. Emissions decreased again from 2008 to 2012 as beef cattle populations again decreased. Regarding trends in other animals, during the timeframe of this analysis, populations of sheep have decreased 53 percent while horse populations have nearly doubled, with each annual increase ranging from about 2 to 9 percent. Goat and swine populations have increased 25 percent and 23 percent, respectively, during this timeframe, though with some slight annual decreases. The population of American bison tripled, while mules and asses have increased by a factor of five.

Table 6-3: CH₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Livestock Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Beef Cattle	100.0	105.8	107.5	106.3	105.4	103.1	100.6
Dairy Cattle	33.1	31.6	34.1	34.4	34.1	34.5	35.0
Swine	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1
Horses	0.8	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.7
Sheep	1.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9
Goats	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
American Bison	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Mules and Asses	+	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	137.9	142.5	147.0	146.1	144.9	143.0	141.0

Notes: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 6-4: CH₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation (Gg)

Livestock Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Beef Cattle	4,763	5,037	5,119	5,062	5,019	4,911	4,789
Dairy Cattle	1,574	1,503	1,622	1,639	1,626	1,643	1,668
Swine	81	92	101	99	97	98	100
Horses	40	70	74	75	77	78	79
Sheep	91	49	48	46	45	44	43
Goats	13	14	16	16	16	16	16
American Bison	4	17	16	15	15	14	14
Mules and Asses	1	2	3	4	4	4	5
Total	6,566	6,785	6,999	6,956	6,898	6,809	6,714

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Livestock emission estimate methodologies fall into two categories: cattle and other domesticated animals. Cattle, due to their large population, large size, and particular digestive characteristics, account for the majority of CH₄ emissions from livestock in the United States. A more detailed methodology (i.e., IPCC Tier 2) was therefore applied to estimate emissions for all cattle. Emission estimates for other domesticated animals (horses, sheep, swine, goats, American bison, and mules and asses) were handled using a less detailed approach (i.e., IPCC Tier 1).

While the large diversity of animal management practices cannot be precisely characterized and evaluated, significant scientific literature exists that provides the necessary data to estimate cattle emissions using the IPCC Tier 2 approach. The Cattle Enteric Fermentation Model (CEFM), developed by EPA and used to estimate cattle CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation, incorporates this information and other analyses of livestock population, feeding practices, and production characteristics.

National cattle population statistics were disaggregated into the following cattle sub-populations:

- Dairy Cattle
 - Calves
 - Heifer Replacements
 - Cows
- Beef Cattle
 - Calves
 - Heifer Replacements
 - Heifer and Steer Stockers
 - Animals in Feedlots (Heifers and Steer)
 - Cows
 - Bulls

Calf birth rates, end-of-year population statistics, detailed feedlot placement information, and slaughter weight data were used to create a transition matrix that models cohorts of individual animal types and their specific emission profiles. The key variables tracked for each of the cattle population categories are described in Annex 3.9. These variables include performance factors such as pregnancy and lactation as well as average weights and weight gain. Annual cattle population data were obtained from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's (USDA) National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS) QuickStats database (USDA 2013).

Diet characteristics were estimated by region for dairy, foraging beef, and feedlot beef cattle. These diet characteristics were used to calculate digestible energy (DE) values (expressed as the percent of gross energy intake digested by the animal) and CH₄ conversion rates (Y_m) (expressed as the fraction of gross energy converted to CH₄) for each regional population category. The IPCC recommends Y_m ranges of 3.0 ± 1.0 percent for feedlot cattle and 6.5 ± 1.0 percent for other well-fed cattle consuming temperate-climate feed types (IPCC 2006). Given the availability of detailed diet information for different regions and animal types in the United States, DE and Y_m values unique to the United States were developed. The diet characterizations and estimation of DE and Y_m values were based on information from state agricultural extension specialists, a review of published forage quality studies and scientific literature, expert opinion, and modeling of animal physiology.

The diet characteristics for dairy cattle were based on Donovan (1999) and an extensive review of nearly 20 years of literature from 1990 through 2009. Estimates of DE were national averages based on the feed components of the diets observed in the literature for the following year groupings: 1990-1993, 1994-1998, 1999-2003, 2004-2006, 2007, and 2008 onward.¹⁷⁸ Base year Y_m values by region were estimated using Donovan (1999). A ruminant

¹⁷⁸ Due to inconsistencies in the 2003 literature values, the 2002 values were used for 2003, as well.

digestion model (COWPOLL, as selected in Kebreab et al. 2008) was used to evaluate Y_m for each diet evaluated from the literature, and a function was developed to adjust regional values over time based on the national trend. Dairy replacement heifer diet assumptions were based on the observed relationship in the literature between dairy cow and dairy heifer diet characteristics.

For feedlot animals, the DE and Y_m values used for 1990 were recommended by Johnson (1999). Values for DE and Y_m for 1991 through 1999 were linearly extrapolated based on the 1990 and 2000 data. DE and Y_m values for 2000 onwards were based on survey data in Galyean and Gleghorn (2001) and Vasconcelos and Galyean (2007).

For grazing beef cattle, Y_m values were based on Johnson (2002), DE values for 1990 through 2006 were based on specific diet components estimated from Donovan (1999), and DE values from 2007 onwards were developed from an analysis by Archibeque (2011), based on diet information in Preston (2010) and USDA:APHIS:VS (2010). Weight and weight gains for cattle were estimated from Holstein (2010), Doren et al. (1989), Enns (2008), Lippke et al. (2000), Pinchack et al. (2004), Platter et al. (2003), Skogerboe et al. (2000), and expert opinion. See Annex 3.10 for more details on the method used to characterize cattle diets and weights in the United States.

Calves younger than 4 months are not included in emission estimates because calves consume mainly milk and the IPCC recommends the use of a Y_m of zero for all juveniles consuming only milk. Diets for calves aged 4 to 6 months are assumed to go through a gradual weaning from milk decreasing to 75 percent at 4 months, 50 percent at age 5 months, and 25 percent at age 6 months. The portion of the diet made up with milk still results in zero emissions. For the remainder of the diet, beef calf DE and Y_m are set equivalent to those of beef replacement heifers, while dairy calf DE is set equal to that of dairy replacement heifers and dairy calf Y_m is provided at 4 and 7 months of age by Soliva (2006). Estimates of Y_m for 5 and 6 month old dairy calves are linearly interpolated from the values provided for 4 and 7 months.

To estimate CH₄ emissions, the population was divided into state, age, sub-type (i.e., dairy cows and replacements, beef cows and replacements, heifer and steer stockers, heifers and steers in feedlots, bulls, beef calves 4 to 6 months, and dairy calves 4 to 6 months), and production (i.e., pregnant, lactating) groupings to more fully capture differences in CH₄ emissions from these animal types. The transition matrix was used to simulate the age and weight structure of each sub-type on a monthly basis in order to more accurately reflect the fluctuations that occur throughout the year. Cattle diet characteristics were then used in conjunction with Tier 2 equations from IPCC (2006) to produce CH₄ emission factors for the following cattle types: dairy cows, beef cows, dairy replacements, beef replacements, steer stockers, heifer stockers, steer feedlot animals, heifer feedlot animals, bulls, and calves. To estimate emissions from cattle, monthly population data from the transition matrix were multiplied by the calculated emission factor for each cattle type. More details are provided in Annex 3.9.

Emission estimates for other animal types were based on average emission factors representative of entire populations of each animal type. Methane emissions from these animals accounted for a minor portion of total CH₄ emissions from livestock in the United States from 1990 through 2012. Also, the variability in emission factors for each of these other animal types (e.g., variability by age, production system, and feeding practice within each animal type) is less than that for cattle. Annual livestock population data for sheep; swine; goats; horses; mules and asses; and American bison were obtained for available years from USDA NASS (USDA 2013). Horse, goat and mule, burro, and donkey population data were available for 1987, 1992, 1997, 2002, 2007 (USDA 1992, 1997, 2013); the remaining years between 1990 and 2012 were interpolated and extrapolated from the available estimates (with the exception of goat populations being held constant between 1990 and 1992 and 2007 through 2012). American bison population estimates were available from USDA for 2002 and 2007 (USDA 2013) and from the National Bison Association (1999) for 1997 through 1999. Additional years were based on observed trends from the National Bison Association (1999), interpolation between known data points, and ratios extrapolation beyond 2007, as described in more detail in Annex 3.9. Methane emissions from sheep, goats, swine, horses, American bison, and mules and asses were estimated by using emission factors utilized in Crutzen et al. (1986, cited in IPCC 2006). These emission factors are representative of typical animal sizes, feed intakes, and feed characteristics in developed countries. For American bison the emission factor for buffalo was used and adjusted based on the ratio of live weights to the 0.75 power. The methodology is the same as that recommended by IPCC (2006).

See Annex 3.9 for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis for this source category was performed using the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology based on a Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique as described in ICF (2003). These uncertainty estimates were developed for the 1990 through 2001 Inventory report (i.e., 2003 submission to the UNFCCC). There have been no significant changes to the methodology since that time; consequently, these uncertainty estimates were directly applied to the 2012 emission estimates in this report.

A total of 185 primary input variables (177 for cattle and 8 for non-cattle) were identified as key input variables for the uncertainty analysis. A normal distribution was assumed for almost all activity- and emission factor-related input variables. Triangular distributions were assigned to three input variables (specifically, cow-birth ratios for the three most recent years included in the 2001 model run) to ensure only positive values would be simulated. For some key input variables, the uncertainty ranges around their estimates (used for inventory estimation) were collected from published documents and other public sources; others were based on expert opinion and best estimates. In addition, both endogenous and exogenous correlations between selected primary input variables were modeled. The exogenous correlation coefficients between the probability distributions of selected activity-related variables were developed through expert judgment.

The uncertainty ranges associated with the activity data-related input variables were plus or minus 10 percent or lower. However, for many emission factor-related input variables, the lower- and/or the upper-bound uncertainty estimates were over 20 percent. The results of the quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 6-5. Based on this analysis, enteric fermentation CH₄ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 125.5 and 166.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level, which indicates a range of 11 percent below to 18 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 141.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. Among the individual cattle sub-source categories, beef cattle account for the largest amount of CH₄ emissions, as well as the largest degree of uncertainty in the emission estimates—due mainly to the difficulty in estimating the diet characteristics for grazing members of this animal group. Among non-cattle, horses represent the largest percent of uncertainty in the previous uncertainty analysis because the FAO population estimates used for horses at that time had a higher degree of uncertainty than for the USDA population estimates used for swine, goats, and sheep. The horse populations are now from the same USDA source as the other animal types, and therefore the uncertainty range around horses is likely overestimated. Cattle calves, American bison, mules and asses were excluded from the initial uncertainty estimate because they were not included in emissions estimates at that time.

Table 6-5: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Enteric Fermentation (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^{a, b, c}			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Enteric Fermentation	CH ₄	141.0	125.5	166.4	-11%	+18%

^a Range of emissions estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^b Note that the relative uncertainty range was estimated with respect to the 2001 emission estimates from the 2003 submission and applied to the 2012 estimates.

^c The overall uncertainty calculated in 2003, and applied to the 2012 emission estimate, did not include uncertainty estimates for calves, American bison, and mules and asses. Additionally, for bulls the emissions estimate was based on the Tier 1 methodology. Since bull emissions are now estimated using the Tier 2 method, the uncertainty surrounding their estimates is likely lower than indicated by the previous uncertainty analysis.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section.

QA/QC and Verification

In order to ensure the quality of the emission estimates from enteric fermentation, the IPCC Tier 1 and Tier 2 Quality Assurance/Quality Control (QA/QC) procedures were implemented consistent with the U.S. QA/QC plan. Tier 2 QA procedures included independent peer review of emission estimates. Recent updates to the forage portion of the diet values for cattle made this the area of emphasis for QA/QC this year, with specific attention to the data sources and comparisons of the current estimates with previous estimates.

In addition, over the past few years, particular importance has been placed on harmonizing the data exchange between the enteric fermentation and manure management source categories. The current inventory submission now utilizes the transition matrix from the CEFM for estimating cattle populations and weights for both source categories, and the CEFM is used to output volatile solids and nitrogen excretion estimates using the diet assumptions in the model in conjunction with the energy balance equations from the IPCC (2006). This approach facilitates the QA/QC process for both of these source categories.

Recalculations Discussion

Calves 4-6 months were added to emission estimates for the first time in the current Inventory. The inclusion of calves has increased emissions from beef cattle by approximately 3 percent per year. In addition, for the first time calf populations for enteric fermentation were differentiated into dairy and beef calves. During this process, total calf populations were updated slightly, so that the enteric fermentation calf populations differ an average of 0.9 percent per year from manure management calf populations. This issue will be resolved in the next inventory when the manure management inventory uses updated calf population values from the CEFM. Additional recalculations include the following:

- In the previous Inventory, aggregation in the 1992 feedlot cattle was linked incorrectly. This correction resulted in a decrease in emissions for that year of 0.2 percent.
- The USDA published minor revisions in several categories that affected historical emissions estimated for cattle in 2011, including dairy cow milk production for several states and cattle populations for January 1, 2012. These changes had an insignificant impact on the overall results.
- Calves 4-6 months were added to emission estimates for the first time in the current Inventory. The inclusion of calves has increased emissions from beef cattle by approximately 3 percent per year. In addition, for the first time calf populations for enteric fermentation were differentiated into dairy and beef calves. During this process, total calf populations were updated slightly, so that the enteric fermentation calf populations differ an average of 0.9 percent per year from manure management calf populations.
- Horse population data was obtained for 1987 and 1992 from USDA census data, resulting in a change in population estimates for 1990 through 1996. This resulted in an average decrease of 6.3 percent for those years relative to the previous report.
- Populations of American bison and mules and asses were revised to extrapolate data beyond the 2007 census based on a linear trend rather than following trends in bison slaughter and holding values constant. These changes resulted in average decrease of 3.2 percent and increase of 31.4 percent, respectively, for those years. Additionally, the name of this population group was revised from mules, burros, and donkeys to mules and asses to be consistent with the CRF tables.

Planned Improvements

Continued research and regular updates are necessary to maintain an emissions inventory that reflects the current base of knowledge. Future improvements for enteric fermentation could include some of the following options:

- Updating input variables that are from older data sources, such as beef births by month and beef cow lactation rates;

- Investigation of the availability of annual data for the DE and crude protein values of specific diet and feed components for foraging and feedlot animals;
- Given the many challenges in characterizing dairy diets, further investigation may be conducted on additional sources or methodologies for estimating DE for dairy;
- Assumptions about weights and weight gains for beef cows can be evaluated further such that trends beyond 2007 are updated, rather than held constant;
- Mature dairy cow weight is likely slightly overestimated, based on knowledge of the breeds of dairy cows in the United States. The estimated weight for dairy cows (1,500 lbs), based solely on Holstein cows, will be reduced in future inventories;
- The possible updating to a Tier 2 methodology for other animal types (i.e., sheep, swine, goats, horses); and
- The investigation of methodologies and emission factors for including enteric fermentation emission estimates from poultry.
- Recent changes that have been implemented to the CEFM warrant an assessment of the current uncertainty analysis; therefore, a revision of the quantitative uncertainty surrounding emission estimates from this source category will be initiated.

6.2 Manure Management (IPCC Source Category 4B)

The treatment, storage, and transportation of livestock manure can produce anthropogenic CH₄ and N₂O emissions. Methane is produced by the anaerobic decomposition of manure. Nitrous oxide emissions are produced through both direct and indirect pathways. Direct N₂O emissions are produced as part of the N cycle through the nitrification and denitrification of the organic N in livestock dung and urine.¹⁷⁹ There are two pathways for indirect N₂O emissions. The first is the result of the volatilization of N in manure (as NH₃ and NO_x) and the subsequent deposition of these gases and their products (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻) onto soils and the surface of lakes and other waters. The second pathway is the runoff and leaching of N from manure to the groundwater below, in riparian zones receiving drain or runoff water, or in the ditches, streams, rivers, and estuaries into which the land drainage water eventually flows.

When livestock or poultry manure are stored or treated in systems that promote anaerobic conditions (e.g., as a liquid/slurry in lagoons, ponds, tanks, or pits), the decomposition of the volatile solids component in the manure tends to produce CH₄. When manure is handled as a solid (e.g., in stacks or drylots) or deposited on pasture, range, or paddock lands, it tends to decompose aerobically and produce little or no CH₄. Ambient temperature, moisture, and manure storage or residency time affect the amount of CH₄ produced because they influence the growth of the bacteria responsible for CH₄ formation. For non-liquid-based manure systems, moist conditions (which are a function of rainfall and humidity) can promote CH₄ production. Manure composition, which varies by animal diet, growth rate, and type, including the animal's digestive system, also affects the amount of CH₄ produced. In general, the greater the energy content of the feed, the greater the potential for CH₄ emissions. However, some higher-energy feeds also are more digestible than lower quality forages, which can result in less overall waste excreted from the animal.

The production of direct N₂O emissions from livestock manure depends on the composition of the manure and urine, the type of bacteria involved in the process, and the amount of oxygen and liquid in the manure system. For direct

¹⁷⁹ Direct and indirect N₂O emissions from dung and urine spread onto fields either directly as daily spread or after it is removed from manure management systems (e.g., lagoon, pit, etc.) and from livestock dung and urine deposited on pasture, range, or paddock lands are accounted for and discussed in the Agricultural Soil Management source category within the Agriculture sector.

N₂O emissions to occur, the manure must first be handled aerobically where ammonia (NH₃) or organic N is converted to nitrates and nitrites (nitrification), and then handled anaerobically where the nitrates and nitrites are reduced to dinitrogen gas (N₂), with intermediate production of N₂O and nitric oxide (NO) (denitrification) (Groffman et al. 2000). These emissions are most likely to occur in dry manure handling systems that have aerobic conditions, but that also contain pockets of anaerobic conditions due to saturation. A very small portion of the total N excreted is expected to convert to N₂O in the waste management system (WMS). Indirect N₂O emissions are produced when nitrogen is lost from the system through volatilization (as NH₃ or NO_x) or through runoff and leaching. The vast majority of volatilization losses from these operations are NH₃. Although there are also some small losses of NO_x, there are no quantified estimates available for use, so losses due to volatilization are only based on NH₃ loss factors. Runoff losses would be expected from operations that house animals or store manure in a manner that is exposed to weather. Runoff losses are also specific to the type of animal housed on the operation due to differences in manure characteristics. Little information is known about leaching from manure management systems as most research focuses on leaching from land application systems. Since leaching losses are expected to be minimal, leaching losses are coupled with runoff losses and the runoff/leaching estimate provided in this chapter does not account for any leaching losses.

Estimates of CH₄ emissions in 2012 were 52.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2,519 Gg); in 1990, emissions were 31.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1,499 Gg). This is a 68 percent increase in emissions from 1990. Emissions increased on average by 0.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3.0 percent) annually over this period. The majority of this increase was from swine and dairy cow manure, where emissions increased 53 and 115 percent, respectively. From 2011 to 2012, there was a 1.7 percent increase in total CH₄ emissions, mainly due to minor shifts in the animal populations and the resultant effects on manure management system allocations.

Although the majority of managed manure in the United States is handled as a solid, producing little CH₄, the general trend in manure management, particularly for dairy and swine (which are both shifting towards larger facilities), is one of increasing use of liquid systems. Also, new regulations controlling the application of manure nutrients to land have shifted manure management practices at smaller dairies from daily spread systems to storage and management of the manure on site. Although national dairy animal populations have generally been decreasing since 1990, some states have seen increases in their dairy populations as the industry becomes more concentrated in certain areas of the country and the number of animals contained on each facility increases. These areas of concentration, such as California, New Mexico, and Idaho, tend to utilize more liquid-based systems to manage (flush or scrape) and store manure. Thus the shift toward larger dairy and swine facilities has translated into an increasing use of liquid manure management systems, which have higher potential CH₄ emissions than dry systems. This significant shift in both the dairy and swine industries was accounted for by incorporating state and WMS-specific CH₄ conversion factor (MCF) values in combination with the 1992, 1997, 2002, and 2007 farm-size distribution data reported in the *Census of Agriculture* (USDA 2009a).

In 2012, total N₂O emissions were estimated to be 18.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (58 Gg); in 1990, emissions were 14.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (46 Gg). These values include both direct and indirect N₂O emissions from manure management. Nitrous oxide emissions have remained fairly steady since 1990. Small changes in N₂O emissions from individual animal groups exhibit the same trends as the animal group populations, with the overall net effect that N₂O emissions showed a 25 percent increase from 1990 to 2012 and a 0.1 percent increase from 2011 through 2012. Overall shifts toward liquid systems have driven down the emissions per unit of nitrogen excreted.

Table 6-6 and Table 6-7 provide estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from manure management by animal category.

Table 6-6: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Manure Management (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Animal Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄^a	31.5	47.6	51.5	50.5	51.8	52.0	52.9
Dairy Cattle	12.6	22.4	26.0	25.9	26.0	26.5	27.1
Beef Cattle	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.7
Swine	13.1	19.2	19.7	18.8	19.9	19.8	20.1
Sheep	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poultry	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7
Horses	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2

American Bison	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Mules and Asses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O^b	14.4	17.1	17.8	17.7	17.8	18.0	18.0
Dairy Cattle	5.3	5.7	5.8	5.8	5.9	5.9	6.0
Beef Cattle	6.1	7.4	7.8	7.8	7.8	8.0	7.9
Swine	1.2	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.0
Sheep	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poultry	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6
Horses	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
American Bison	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Mules and Asses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	45.8	64.7	69.3	68.2	69.6	70.0	70.9

+ Less than 0.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

^aAccounts for CH₄ reductions due to capture and destruction of CH₄ at facilities using anaerobic digesters.

^bIncludes both direct and indirect N₂O emissions.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. American bison are maintained entirely on unmanaged WMS; there are no American bison N₂O emissions from managed systems.

NA: Not available

Table 6-7: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Manure Management (Gg)

Gas/Animal Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄^a	1,499	2,265	2,452	2,403	2,466	2,478	2,519
Dairy Cattle	599	1,069	1,238	1,233	1,239	1,262	1,291
Beef Cattle	128	135	132	131	134	132	128
Swine	624	914	938	896	948	941	957
Sheep	7	3	3	3	3	3	3
Goats	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Poultry	131	129	129	128	129	127	127
Horses	9	12	10	11	11	11	12
American Bison	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Mules and Asses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N₂O^b	46	55	57	57	57	58	58
Dairy Cattle	17	18	19	19	19	19	19
Beef Cattle	20	24	25	25	25	26	26
Swine	4	6	6	6	6	6	6
Sheep	+	1	1	1	1	1	1
Goats	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poultry	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Horses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
American Bison	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Mules and Asses	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Less than 0.5 Gg.

^aAccounts for CH₄ reductions due to capture and destruction of CH₄ at facilities using anaerobic digesters.

^bIncludes both direct and indirect N₂O emissions.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. American bison are maintained entirely on unmanaged WMS; there are no American bison N₂O emissions from managed systems.

NA: Not available

Methodology

The methodologies presented in IPCC (2006) form the basis of the CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates for each animal type. This section presents a summary of the methodologies used to estimate CH₄ and N₂O emissions from manure management. See Annex 3.11 for more detailed information on the methodology and data used to calculate CH₄ and N₂O emissions from manure management.

Methane Calculation Methods

The following inputs were used in the calculation of CH₄ emissions:

- Animal population data (by animal type and state);
- Typical animal mass (TAM) data (by animal type);
- Portion of manure managed in each WMS, by state and animal type;
- Volatile solids (VS) production rate (by animal type and state or United States);
- Methane producing potential (B₀) of the volatile solids (by animal type); and
- Methane conversion factors (MCF), the extent to which the CH₄ producing potential is realized for each type of WMS (by state and manure management system, including the impacts of any biogas collection efforts).

Methane emissions were estimated by first determining activity data, including animal population, TAM, WMS usage, and waste characteristics. The activity data sources are described below:

- Annual animal population data for 1990 through 2012 for all livestock types, except goats, horses, mules and asses, and American bison were obtained from USDA National Agriculture Statistics Service (NASS). For cattle, the USDA populations were utilized in conjunction with birth rates, detailed feedlot placement information, and slaughter weight data to create the transition matrix in the Cattle Enteric Fermentation Model (CEFM) that models cohorts of individual animal types and their specific emission profiles. The key variables tracked for each of the cattle population categories are described in Section 6.1 and in more detail in Annex 3.10. Goat population data for 1992, 1997, 2002, and 2007, horse and mule and ass population data for 1987, 1992, 1997, 2002 and 2007, and American bison population for 2002 and 2007 were obtained from the *Census of Agriculture* (USDA 2009a). American bison population data for 1990-1999 were obtained from the National Bison Association (1999).
- The TAM is an annual average weight that was obtained for animal types other than cattle from information in USDA's *Agricultural Waste Management Field Handbook* (USDA 1996), the American Society of Agricultural Engineers, Standard D384.1 (ASAE 1998) and others (Meagher 1986; EPA 1992; Safley 2000; ERG 2003b; IPCC 2006; ERG 2010a). For a description of the TAM used for cattle, please see section 6.1, Enteric Fermentation.
- WMS usage was estimated for swine and dairy cattle for different farm size categories using data from USDA (USDA; APHIS 1996; Bush 1998; Ott 2000; USDA 2009a) and EPA (ERG 2000a; EPA 2002a; 2002b). For beef cattle and poultry, manure management system usage data were not tied to farm size but were based on other data sources (ERG 2000a; USDA; APHIS 2000; UEP 1999). For other animal types, manure management system usage was based on previous estimates (EPA 1992). American bison WMS usage was assumed to be the same as not on feed (NOF) cattle, while mules and asses were assumed to be the same as horses.
- VS production rates for all cattle except for calves were calculated by head for each state and animal type in the CEFM. VS production rates by animal mass for all other animals were determined using data from USDA's *Agricultural Waste Management Field Handbook* (USDA 1996, 2008 and ERG 2010b and 2010c) and data that was not available in the most recent *Handbook* were obtained from the American Society of Agricultural Engineers, Standard D384.1 (ASAE 1998) or the 2006 IPCC Guidelines. American bison VS production was assumed to be the same as NOF bulls.

- The maximum CH₄ producing capacity of the VS (B_o) was determined for each animal type based on literature values (Morris 1976; Bryant et al, 1976; Hashimoto 1981; Hashimoto 1984; EPA 1992; Hill 1982; Hill 1984).
- MCFs for dry systems were set equal to default IPCC factors based on state climate for each year (IPCC 2006). MCFs for liquid/slurry, anaerobic lagoon, and deep pit systems were calculated based on the forecast performance of biological systems relative to temperature changes as predicted in the van't Hoff-Arrhenius equation which is consistent with IPCC (2006) Tier 2 methodology.
- Data from anaerobic digestion systems with CH₄ capture and combustion were obtained from the EPA AgSTAR Program, including information presented in the *AgSTAR Digest* (EPA 2000, 2003, 2006) and the AgSTAR project database (EPA 2012). Anaerobic digester emissions were calculated based on estimated methane production and collection and destruction efficiency assumptions (ERG 2008).
- For all cattle except for calves, the estimated amount of VS (kg per animal-year) managed in each WMS for each animal type, state, and year were taken from the CEFM, assuming American bison VS production to be the same as NOF bulls. For animals other than cattle, the annual amount of VS (kg per year) from manure excreted in each WMS was calculated for each animal type, state, and year. This calculation multiplied the animal population (head) by the VS excretion rate (kg VS per 1,000 kg animal mass per day), the TAM (kg animal mass per head) divided by 1,000, the WMS distribution (percent), and the number of days per year (365.25).

The estimated amount of VS managed in each WMS was used to estimate the CH₄ emissions (kg CH₄ per year) from each WMS. The amount of VS (kg per year) were multiplied by the maximum CH₄ producing capacity of the VS (B_o) (m³ CH₄ per kg VS), the MCF for that WMS (percent), and the density of CH₄ (kg CH₄ per m³ CH₄). The CH₄ emissions for each WMS, state, and animal type were summed to determine the total U.S. CH₄ emissions.

Nitrous Oxide Calculation Methods

The following inputs were used in the calculation of direct and indirect N₂O emissions:

- Animal population data (by animal type and state);
- TAM data (by animal type);
- Portion of manure managed in each WMS (by state and animal type);
- Total Kjeldahl N excretion rate (N_{ex});
- Direct N₂O emission factor (EF_{WMS});
- Indirect N₂O emission factor for volatilization (EF_{volatilization});
- Indirect N₂O emission factor for runoff and leaching (EF_{runoff/leach});
- Fraction of N loss from volatilization of NH₃ and NO_x (Frac_{gas}); and
- Fraction of N loss from runoff and leaching (Frac_{runoff/leach}).

N₂O emissions were estimated by first determining activity data, including animal population, TAM, WMS usage, and waste characteristics. The activity data sources (except for population, TAM, and WMS, which were described above) are described below:

- Nex rates for all cattle except for calves were calculated by head for each state and animal type in the CEFM. Nex rates by animal mass for all other animals were determined using data from USDA's *Agricultural Waste Management Field Handbook* (USDA 1996, 2008 and ERG 2010b and 2010c) and data from the American Society of Agricultural Engineers, Standard D384.1 (ASAE 1998) and IPCC (2006). American bison Nex rates were assumed to be the same as NOF bulls.
- All N₂O emission factors (direct and indirect) were taken from IPCC (2006). These data are appropriate because they were developed using U.S. data.
- Country-specific estimates for the fraction of N loss from volatilization (Frac_{gas}) and runoff and leaching (Frac_{runoff/leach}) were developed. Frac_{gas} values were based on WMS-specific volatilization values as estimated from EPA's *National Emission Inventory - Ammonia Emissions from Animal Agriculture Operations* (EPA 2005). Frac_{runoff/leaching} values were based on regional cattle runoff data from EPA's Office of Water (EPA 2002b; see Annex 3.1).

To estimate N₂O emissions for cattle (except for calves) and American bison, the estimated amount of N excreted (kg per animal-year) managed in each WMS for each animal type, state, and year were taken from the CEFM. For calves and other animals, the amount of N excreted (kg per year) in manure in each WMS for each animal type, state, and year was calculated. The population (head) for each state and animal was multiplied by TAM (kg animal mass per head) divided by 1,000, the nitrogen excretion rate (N_{ex}, in kg N per 1,000 kg animal mass per day), WMS distribution (percent), and the number of days per year.

Direct N₂O emissions were calculated by multiplying the amount of N excreted (kg per year) in each WMS by the N₂O direct emission factor for that WMS (EF_{WMS}, in kg N₂O-N per kg N) and the conversion factor of N₂O-N to N₂O. These emissions were summed over state, animal, and WMS to determine the total direct N₂O emissions (kg of N₂O per year).

Next, indirect N₂O emissions from volatilization (kg N₂O per year) were calculated by multiplying the amount of N excreted (kg per year) in each WMS by the fraction of N lost through volatilization (Frac_{tas}) divided by 100, and the emission factor for volatilization (EF_{volatilization}, in kg N₂O per kg N), and the conversion factor of N₂O-N to N₂O. Indirect N₂O emissions from runoff and leaching (kg N₂O per year) were then calculated by multiplying the amount of N excreted (kg per year) in each WMS by the fraction of N lost through runoff and leaching (Frac_{runoff/leach}) divided by 100, and the emission factor for runoff and leaching (EF_{runoff/leach}, in kg N₂O per kg N), and the conversion factor of N₂O-N to N₂O. The indirect N₂O emissions from volatilization and runoff and leaching were summed to determine the total indirect N₂O emissions.

The direct and indirect N₂O emissions were summed to determine total N₂O emissions (kg N₂O per year).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

An analysis (ERG 2003a) was conducted for the manure management emission estimates presented in the 1990 through 2001 Inventory report (i.e., 2003 submission to the UNFCCC) to determine the uncertainty associated with estimating CH₄ and N₂O emissions from livestock manure management. The quantitative uncertainty analysis for this source category was performed in 2002 through the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology, the Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation technique. The uncertainty analysis was developed based on the methods used to estimate CH₄ and N₂O emissions from manure management systems. A normal probability distribution was assumed for each source data category. The series of equations used were condensed into a single equation for each animal type and state. The equations for each animal group contained four to five variables around which the uncertainty analysis was performed for each state. These uncertainty estimates were directly applied to the 2012 emission estimates as there have not been significant changes in the methodology since that time.

The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 6-8. Manure management CH₄ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 43.4 and 63.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level, which indicates a range of 18 percent below to 20 percent above the actual 2012 emission estimate of 52.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. At the 95 percent confidence level, N₂O emissions were estimated to be between 15.1 and 22.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (or approximately 16 percent below and 24 percent above the actual 2012 emission estimate of 18.0 Tg CO₂ Eq.).

Table 6-8: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and N₂O (Direct and Indirect) Emissions from Manure Management (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a (%)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Manure Management	CH ₄	52.9	43.4	63.5	-18%	+20%
Manure Management	N ₂ O	18.0	15.1	22.4	-16%	+24%

^aRange of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

QA/QC and Verification

Tier 1 and Tier 2 QA/QC activities were conducted consistent with the U.S. QA/QC plan. Tier 2 activities focused on comparing estimates for the previous and current inventories for N₂O emissions from managed systems and CH₄ emissions from livestock manure. All errors identified were corrected. Order of magnitude checks were also conducted, and corrections made where needed. Manure N data were checked by comparing state-level data with bottom up estimates derived at the county level and summed to the state level. Similarly, a comparison was made by animal and WMS type for the full time series, between national level estimates for N excreted and the sum of county estimates for the full time series.

Any updated data, including population, are validated by experts to ensure the changes are representative of the best available U.S.-specific data. The U.S.-specific values for TAM, Nex, VS, B_o, and MCF were also compared to the IPCC default values and validated by experts. Although significant differences exist in some instances, these differences are due to the use of U.S.-specific data and the differences in U.S. agriculture as compared to other countries. The U.S. manure management emission estimates use the most reliable country-specific data, which are more representative of U.S. animals and systems than the 2006 IPCC default values.

For additional verification, the implied CH₄ emission factors for manure management (kg of CH₄ per head per year) were compared against the default 2006 IPCC values. Table 6-9 presents the implied emission factors of kg of CH₄ per head per year used for the manure management emission estimates as well as the IPCC default emission factors. The U.S. implied emission factors fall within the range of the 2006 IPCC default values, except in the case of sheep, goats, and some years for horses and dairy cattle. The U.S. implied emission factors are greater than the 2006 IPCC default value for those animals due to the use of U.S.-specific data for typical animal mass and VS excretion. There is an increase in implied emission factors for dairy and swine across the time series. This increase reflects the dairy and swine industry trend towards larger farm sizes; large farms are more likely to manage manure as a liquid and therefore produce more CH₄ emissions.

Table 6-9: 2006 IPCC Implied Emission Factor Default Values Compared with Calculated Values for CH₄ from Manure Management (kg/head/year)

Animal Type	IPCC Default CH ₄ Emission Factors (kg/head/year)	Implied CH ₄ Emission Factors (kg/head/year)						
		1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Dairy Cattle	48-112	42.3	81.2	90.7	89.6	91.0	92.0	93.5
Beef Cattle	1-2	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6
Swine	10-45	11.6	15.0	13.9	13.6	14.6	14.3	14.4
Sheep	0.19-0.37	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Goats	0.13-0.26	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Poultry	0.02-1.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Horses	1.56-3.13	4.3	3.1	2.5	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6
Mules and Asses	0.76-1.14	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
American Bison	NA	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1

In addition, 2006 default IPCC emission factors for N₂O were compared to the U.S. Inventory implied N₂O emission factors. Default N₂O emission factors from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines were used to estimate N₂O emission from each WMS in conjunction with U.S.-specific Nex values. The implied emission factors differed from the U.S. Inventory values due to the use of U.S.-specific Nex values and differences in populations present in each WMS throughout the time series.

Recalculations Discussion

The CEFM produces population, VS and Nex data for cattle, excepting calves, that are used in the manure management inventory. As a result, all changes to the CEFM described in Section 6.1 Enteric Fermentation contributed to changes in the population, VS and Nex data used for calculating CH₄ and N₂O cattle emissions from manure management. State animal populations were updated to reflect updated USDA NASS datasets. Population changes occurred for poultry and swine in 2011. Changes also occurred for horses and mules and asses for 1990

through 1996 due to incorporation of older census data. VS for mules and asses was updated this year due to a calculation error when the animal group was incorporated in 2011.

Planned Improvements

The uncertainty analysis will be updated in the future to more accurately assess uncertainty of emission calculations. This update is necessary due to the extensive changes in emission calculation methodology, including estimation of emissions at the WMS level and the use of new calculations and variables for indirect N₂O emissions.

In the next Inventory report, the population, VS, and Nex values for calves calculated by the CEFM will be incorporated into the manure management emission estimates. Calf populations will be differentiated into dairy and beef calves so that populations between enteric fermentation and manure management will be equal. Also, the 2012 Agricultural Census data will also be incorporated into the inventory when it becomes available. These data will be used to update animal population and WMS estimates.

6.3 Rice Cultivation (IPCC Source Category 4C)

Most of the world's rice, and all rice in the United States, is grown on flooded fields (Baicich 2013). When fields are flooded, aerobic decomposition of organic material gradually depletes most of the oxygen present in the soil, causing anaerobic soil conditions. Once the environment becomes anaerobic, CH₄ is produced through anaerobic decomposition of soil organic matter by methanogenic bacteria. As much as 60 to 90 percent of the CH₄ produced is oxidized by aerobic methanotrophic bacteria in the soil (some oxygen remains at the interfaces of soil and water, and soil and root system) (Holzapfel-Pschorn et al. 1985, Sass et al. 1990). Some of the CH₄ is also leached away as dissolved CH₄ in floodwater that percolates from the field. The remaining un-oxidized CH₄ is transported from the submerged soil to the atmosphere primarily by diffusive transport through the rice plants. Minor amounts of CH₄ also escape from the soil via diffusion and bubbling through floodwaters.

The water management system under which rice is grown is one of the most important factors affecting CH₄ emissions. Upland rice fields are not flooded, and therefore are not believed to produce CH₄. In deepwater rice fields (i.e., fields with flooding depths greater than one meter), the lower stems and roots of the rice plants are dead, so the primary CH₄ transport pathway to the atmosphere is blocked. The quantities of CH₄ released from deepwater fields, therefore, are believed to be significantly less than the quantities released from areas with shallower flooding depths (Sass 2001). Some flooded fields are drained periodically during the growing season, either intentionally or accidentally. If water is drained and soils are allowed to dry sufficiently, CH₄ emissions decrease or stop entirely. This is due to soil aeration, which not only causes existing soil CH₄ to oxidize but also inhibits further CH₄ production in soils. Rice in the United States is grown under continuously flooded, shallow water conditions; none is grown under deepwater conditions (USDA 2012). Mid-season drainage does not occur except by accident (e.g., due to levee breach).

Other factors that influence CH₄ emissions from flooded rice fields include fertilization practices (especially the use of organic fertilizers), soil temperature, soil type, rice variety, and cultivation practices (e.g., tillage, seeding, and weeding practices). The factors that determine the amount of organic material available to decompose under anaerobic conditions (i.e., organic fertilizer use, soil type, rice variety¹⁸⁰, and cultivation practices) are the most important variables influencing the amount of CH₄ emitted over the growing season. Soil temperature is known to be an important factor regulating the activity of methanogenic bacteria, and therefore the rate of CH₄ production. However, although temperature controls the amount of time it takes to convert a given amount of organic material to CH₄, that time is short relative to a growing season, so the dependence of total emissions over an entire growing season on soil temperature is weak. The application of synthetic fertilizers has also been found to influence CH₄ emissions; in particular, both nitrate and sulfate fertilizers (e.g., ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate) appear to inhibit CH₄ formation.

¹⁸⁰ The roots of rice plants shed organic material, which is referred to as "root exudate." The amount of root exudate produced by a rice plant over a growing season varies among rice varieties.

Rice is cultivated in seven states: Arkansas, California, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, and Texas. Soil types, rice varieties, and cultivation practices for rice vary from state to state, and even from farm to farm. However most rice farmers recycle crop residues from the previous rice or rotational crop, which are left standing, disked, or rolled into fields. Most farmers also apply synthetic fertilizer to their fields, usually urea. Nitrate and sulfate fertilizers are not commonly used in rice cultivation in the United States. In addition, the climatic conditions of southwest Louisiana, Texas, and Florida often allow for a second, or ratoon, rice crop. Ratoon crops are much less common or non-existent in Arkansas, California, Mississippi, and Missouri. In 2012, Arkansas reported a larger-than-usual ratoon crop because an early start to the planting season allowed more farmers to attempt a ratoon crop (Hardke 2013). Methane emissions from ratoon crops have been found to be considerably higher than those from the primary crop (Wang 2013). This second rice crop is produced from regrowth of the stubble after the first crop has been harvested. Because the first crop's stubble is left behind in ratooned fields, and there is no time delay between cropping seasons (which would allow the stubble to decay aerobically), the amount of organic material that is available for anaerobic decomposition is considerably higher than with the first (i.e., primary) crop.

Rice cultivation is a small source of CH₄ in the United States (Table 6-10 and Table 6-11). In 2012, CH₄ emissions from rice cultivation were 7.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (351 Gg). Annual emissions fluctuated unevenly between the years 1990 and 2012, ranging from an annual decrease of 24 percent from 2010 and 2011 to an annual increase of 18 percent from 2009 to 2010. There was an overall decrease of 16 percent between 1990 and 2006, due to an overall decrease in primary crop area. However, emission levels increased again by 14 percent between 2006 and 2012 due to an overall increase in total rice crop area. All states except Arkansas and Missouri reported a decrease in rice crop area from 2011 to 2012. The factors that affect the rice acreage in any year vary from state to state and are typically the result of weather phenomena (Baldwin et al. 2010).

Table 6-10: CH₄ Emissions from Rice Cultivation (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

State	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Primary	5.6	6.7	5.9	6.2	7.2	5.2	5.3
Arkansas	2.4	3.3	2.8	3.0	3.6	2.3	2.6
California	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Florida	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Louisiana	1.1	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.8
Mississippi	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.3
Missouri	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4
Oklahoma	+	+	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Texas	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3
Ratoon	2.1	0.8	1.9	1.8	2.1	1.9	2.1
Arkansas	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.4
Florida	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Louisiana	1.1	0.5	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.0	1.1
Texas	0.9	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.5
Total	7.7	7.5	7.8	7.9	9.3	7.1	7.4

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-11: CH₄ Emissions from Rice Cultivation (Gg)

State	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Primary	268	319	282	294	343	247	253
Arkansas	115	157	134	141	171	111	123
California	34	45	44	48	48	50	48
Florida	1	1	1	1	1	2	1
Louisiana	52	50	45	45	51	40	38
Mississippi	24	25	22	23	29	15	12
Missouri	8	21	19	19	24	12	17
Oklahoma	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Texas	34	19	17	16	18	17	13
Ratoon	98	39	89	84	101	92	98
Arkansas	+	1	+	+	+	+	20
Florida	2	+	1	2	2	2	2

Louisiana	52	22	59	51	68	46	50
Texas	45	17	29	31	32	44	26
Total	366	358	370	378	444	339	351

+ Less than 0.5 Gg

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

IPCC Good Practice Guidance (GPG) (2000) recommends using harvested rice areas, and seasonally integrated emission factors (i.e., emission factors for each commonly occurring set of rice production conditions in the country developed from standardized field measurements representing the mix of different conditions that influence CH₄ emissions in the area). To that end, the recommended GPG methodology and Tier 2 U.S.-specific seasonally integrated emission factors derived from U.S. based rice field measurements were used. Following a literature review of the most recent research on CH₄ emissions from U.S. rice production, regional emission factors were derived. California-specific winter flooded and non-winter flooded emission factors were applied to California rice area harvested. Average U.S. seasonal emission factors were applied to Arkansas, Florida, Louisiana, Missouri, Mississippi, and Texas as sufficient data to develop state-specific and/or daily emission factors were not available. Seasonal emissions have been found to be much higher for ratooned crops than for primary crops, so emissions from ratooned and primary areas are estimated separately using emission factors that are representative of the particular growing season for those states where ratooning occurs. Within California, some rice crops are flooded during the winter to prepare the fields for seedbeds for the next growing season, in addition to creating waterfowl habitat (Young 2013); consequently, emissions from winter-flooded and non-winter flooded areas are also estimated using separate emission factors. Winter flooded rice crops generate CH₄ year round due to the anaerobic conditions the winter flooding creates (EDF 2011). Thus for winter flooded rice crops in California, an annual CH₄ emission factor is used. For non-winter flooded California rice crops, a seasonal emission factor is applied. It has been found that up to 50 percent of the year-round CH₄ emissions in winter flooded rice crops will occur in the winter, but almost all of the CH₄ emissions from non-winter flooded rice crops occur during the growing season (Fitzgerald 2000). This approach is consistent with IPCC (2000).

The harvested rice areas for the primary and ratoon crops in each state are presented in Table 6-12, and the ratooned crop area as a percent of primary crop area is shown in Table 6-13. Primary crop areas for 1990 through 2012 for all states except Florida and Oklahoma were taken from U.S. Department of Agriculture's *Field Crops Final Estimates 1987–1992* (USDA 1994), *Field Crops Final Estimates 1992–1997* (USDA 1998), *Field Crops Final Estimates 1997–2002* (USDA 2003), and *Crop Production Summary* (USDA 2005 through 2013). Source data for non-USDA sources of primary and ratoon harvest areas are shown in Table 6-14. California, Mississippi, Missouri, and Oklahoma have not ratooned rice over the period 1990 through 2012 (Anderson 2008 through 2013; Beighley 2012; Buehring 2009 through 2011; Guethle 1999 through 2010; Lee 2003 through 2007; Mutters 2002 through 2005; Street 1999 through 2003; Walker 2005, 2007 through 2008).

Table 6-12: Rice Area Harvested (Hectares)

State/Crop	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Arkansas							
Primary	485,633	661,675	564,549	594,901	722,380	467,017	520,032
Ratoon ^a	-	662	6	6	7	5	26,002
California	159,854	212,869	209,227	225,010	223,796	234,723	225,010
Florida							
Primary	4,978	4,565	5,463	5,664	5,330	8,212	6,244
Ratoon	2,489	-	1,639	2,266	2,275	2,311	2,748
Louisiana							
Primary	220,558	212,465	187,778	187,778	216,512	169,162	160,664
Ratoon	66,168	27,620	75,111	65,722	86,605	59,207	64,265
Mississippi	101,174	106,435	92,675	98,341	122,622	63,942	52,206
Missouri	32,376	86,605	80,534	80,939	101,578	51,801	71,631
Oklahoma	617	271	77	-	-	-	-

Texas																	
Primary	142,857	81,344	69,607	68,798	76,083	72,845	54,229										
Ratoon	57,143	21,963	36,892	39,903	41,085	56,091	33,080										
Total Primary	1,148,047	1,366,228	1,209,911	1,261,431	1,468,300	1,067,702	1,090,016										
Total Ratoon	125,799	50,245	113,648	107,897	129,971	117,613	126,094										
Total	1,273,847	1,416,473	1,323,559	1,369,328	1,598,271	1,185,315	1,216,111										

^a Arkansas ratooning occurred only in 1998, 1999, and 2005 through 2012, with particularly high ratoon rates in 2012.

“-“ No reported value

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-13: Ratooned Area as Percent of Primary Growth Area

State	1990	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Arkansas	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	0.1%	+	+	+	+	+	+	5%
Florida	50%	50%	50%	65%	41%	60%	54%	100%	77%	0%	28%	30%	30%	40%	43%	28%	44%
Louisiana	30%	30%	30%	30%	40%	30%	15%	35%	30%	13%	20%	35%	40%	35%	40%	35%	40%
Texas	40%	40%	40%	40%	50%	40%	37%	38%	35%	27%	39%	36%	53%	58%	54%	77%	61%

+ Indicates ratooning less than 0.1 percent of primary growth area.

Table 6-14: Non-USDA Data Sources for Rice Harvest Information (Citation Year)

State/Crop	1990	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	
Arkansas - Ratoon					Wilson (2002 – 2007, 2009 – 2012)										Hardke (2013)	
Florida – Primary		Scheuneman (1999 – 2001)		Deren (2002)	Kirstein (2003)						Gonzales (2006 – 2013) Kirstein (2006)					
Florida – Ratoon		Scheuneman (1999-2001)		Deren (2002)	Kirstein (2003-2004)		Cantens (2005)				Gonzales (2006 – 2013)					
Louisiana – Ratoon	Bollich (2000)				Linscombe (1999, 2001 – 2013)											
Oklahoma – Primary							Lee (2003-2007)					Anderson (2008 – 2013)				
Texas – Ratoon		Klosterboer (1999 – 2003)					Stansel (2004,2005)				Texas Ag Experiment Station (2006 – 2013)					

To determine what CH₄ emission factors should be used for the primary and ratoon crops, CH₄ flux information from rice field measurements in the United States was collected. Experiments that involved atypical or nonrepresentative management practices (e.g., the application of nitrate or sulfate fertilizers, or other substances believed to suppress CH₄ formation), as well as experiments in which measurements were not made over an entire flooding season or floodwaters were drained mid-season, were excluded from the analysis. The remaining experimental results were then sorted by state, season (i.e., primary and ratoon), flooding practices, and type of fertilizer amendment (i.e., no fertilizer added, organic fertilizer added, and synthetic and organic fertilizer added).

Eleven California-specific primary crop experimental results were added for California rice emissions this year. These California-specific studies were selected because they met the criteria of experiments on primary crops with added synthetic and organic fertilizer, without residue burning, and without winter flooding (Bossio 1999; Fitzgerald et al. 2000). The seasonal emission rates estimated in these studies were averaged to derive a seasonal emission factor for California’s primary, non-winter flooded rice crop. Similarly, separate California-specific studies meeting the same criteria, (i.e., primary crops with added synthetic and organic fertilizer, without residue burning) but with winter flooding (Bossio 1999; Fitzgerald et al. 2000; McMillan et al. 2007) were averaged to derive an annual

emission factor for California’s primary, winter-flooded rice crop. Approximately 60 percent of California’s rice crop is winter-flooded (Environmental Defense Fund, Inc. 2011), therefore the California-specific winter flooded emission factor was applied to 60 percent of the California rice area harvested and the California-specific non-winter flooded emission factor was applied to the 40 percent of the California rice area harvested. The resultant seasonal emission factor for the California non-winter flooded crop is 133 kg CH₄/hectare-season, and the annual emission factor for the California winter-flooded crop is 266 kg CH₄/hectare-season.

For the remaining states, a non-California U.S. seasonal emission factor was derived by averaging seasonal emissions rates from primary crops with added synthetic and organic fertilizer (Byrd 2000; Kongchum 2005; Rogers et al. 2011; Sass et al. 1991a, 1991b, 2002a, 2002b; Yao 2000). The seasonal emissions rates from ratoon crops with added synthetic fertilizer (Lindau and Bollich 1993; Lindau et al. 1995) were averaged to derive a seasonal emission factor for the ratoon crop. The resultant seasonal emission factor for the primary crop is 237 kg CH₄/hectare-season, and the resultant emission factor for the ratoon crop is 780 kg CH₄/hectare-season.

Box 6-1: Comparison of the U.S. Inventory Seasonal Emission Factors and IPCC (1996) Default Emission Factor

Emissions from rice production were estimated using a Tier 2 methodology consistent with IPCC (2000) Good Practice Guidance. Default emission factors using experimentally determined seasonal CH₄ emissions from U.S. rice fields for both primary and ratoon crops were derived from a literature review. The 1996 IPCC Guidelines default seasonal emission factors are compared because a U.S.-specific seasonal emission factor is provided instead of the global daily emission factor provided in the 2006 IPCC guidelines, and the standard global seasonal emission factor provided in the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* (2000). As explained above, four different emission factors were calculated: 1) a seasonal California-specific rate without winter flooding (133 kg CH₄/hectare-season), 2) an annual California specific-rate with winter flooding (266 kg CH₄/hectare-season), 3) a seasonal non-California primary crop rate (237 kg CH₄/hectare-season), and 4) a seasonal non-California ratoon crop rate (780 kg CH₄/hectare-season). These emission factors represent averages across rice field measurements representing typical water management practices and synthetic and organic amendment application practices in the United States according to regional experts (Anderson 2013; Beighly 2012; Fife 2011; Gonzalez 2013; Linscombe 2013; Vayssières 2013; Wilson 2012). The IPCC (1996) default factor for U.S. (i.e., Texas) rice production of both primary and ratoon crops is 250 kg CH₄/hectare-season. This default value is based on a study by Sass and Fisher (1995) which reflects a growing season in Texas of approximately 275 days. Data results in the evaluated studies were provided as seasonal emission factors; therefore, neither daily emission factors nor growing season length was estimated. Some variability within season lengths in the evaluated studies is assumed. The Tier 2 emission factors used here represent rice cultivation practices specific to the United States. For comparison, the 2012 U.S. emissions from rice production are 7.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. using the four U.S.-specific emission factors for both primary and ratoon crops and 6.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. using the IPCC (1996) emission factor.

Table 6-15: Non-California Seasonal Emission Factors (kg CH₄/ha-season)

Primary		Ratoon	
Low	61	Low	481
High	500	High	1490
Mean	237	Mean	780

Table 6-16: California Emission Factors (kg CH₄/ha)

Winter Flooded (Annual) ^a		Non-Winter Flooded (Seasonal) ^b	
Low	131	Low	62
High	369	High	221
Mean	266	Mean	133

^a Percentage of CA rice crop winter flooded: 60 percent

^b Percentage of CA rice crop not winter flooded: 40 percent

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The largest uncertainty in the calculation of CH₄ emissions from rice cultivation is associated with the emission factors. Seasonal emissions, derived from field measurements in the United States, vary by more than one order of magnitude. This inherent variability is due to differences in cultivation practices, particularly fertilizer type, amount, and mode of application; differences in cultivar type; and differences in soil and climatic conditions. A portion of this variability is accounted for by separating primary from ratooned areas. However, even within a cropping season or a given management regime, measured emissions may vary significantly. Of the experiments used to derive the emission factors applied here, primary emissions ranged from 61 to 500 kg CH₄/hectare-season and ratoon emissions ranged from 481 to 1,490 kg CH₄/hectare-season. The uncertainty distributions around the California winter flooding, California non-winter flooding, non-California primary, and ratoon emission factors were derived using the distributions of the relevant emission factors available in the literature and described above. Variability around the rice emission factor means was not normally distributed for any crops, but rather skewed, with a tail trailing to the right of the mean. A lognormal statistical distribution was, therefore, applied in the Tier 2 Monte Carlo analysis.

Other sources of uncertainty include the primary rice-cropped area for each state, percent of rice-cropped area that is ratooned, the length of the growing season, and the extent to which flooding outside of the normal rice season is practiced. Expert judgment was used to estimate the uncertainty associated with primary rice-cropped area for each state at 1 to 5 percent, and a normal distribution was assumed. Uncertainties were applied to ratooned area by state, based on the level of reporting performed by the state. Within California, the uncertainty associated with the percentage of rice fields that are winter flooded was estimated at plus and minus 20 percent. No uncertainty estimates were calculated for the practice of flooding outside of the normal rice season outside of California because CH₄ flux measurements have not been undertaken over a sufficient geographic range or under a broad enough range of representative conditions to account for this source in the emission estimates or its associated uncertainty.

To quantify the uncertainties for emissions from rice cultivation, a Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was performed using the information provided above. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 6-17. Rice cultivation CH₄ emissions in 2012 were estimated to be between 3.57 and 14.47 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level, which indicates a range of 52 percent below to 96 percent above the actual 2012 emission estimate of 7.38 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 6-17: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Rice Cultivation (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Rice Cultivation	CH ₄	7.38	3.57	14.47	-52%	+96%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for rice cultivation was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures focused on comparing trends across years, states, and cropping seasons to attempt to identify any outliers or inconsistencies. No problems were found.

Recalculations Discussion

An updated literature review of rice emission factor estimates was conducted for the current Inventory, resulting in an updated set of regional rice emission factors. In the previous Inventory, two U.S. average emission factors were applied to rice area harvested—one for the primary crop (210 kg CH₄/hectare-season) and one for the ratoon crop (780 kg CH₄/hectare-season). The updated emission factors, based on the recent literature, replace the primary crop emission factor with two California-specific emission factors based on flooding practices and an updated non-California primary crop emission factor of 237 kg CH₄/hectare-season. The new emission factors were applied across the full time series, as they represent the same assumptions about rice cultivation practices. The change in emission factors resulted, on average, in an 8.3 percent increase in emissions from 1990 to 2011.

Planned Improvements

A planned improvement for the 1990 through 2013 Inventory will be the expansion of the California specific rice emission factors to include an emission factor for the period prior to the passage of the Air Resources Board (ARB) Mandate phasing out rice residue burning. This non-flooded residue burned emission factor will take into account the phase down of rice straw burning that occurred in California from 1990 to 2002. During this time period, the percentage of acres burned annually decreased from 75 percent in 1992 to 13 percent in 2002 (California Air Resources Board 2003). California studies that include rice burning on non-flooded lands will be used to develop the pre-2002 rice burning emission factor, and further research will be conducted to determine the percentage of winter flooded acres to which the current California winter flooded emission factor will be applied. This new time series dependent emission factor will be applied to non-flooded burned acres during the 1990 through 2002 time period to capture the significant change in the percentage of rice acreage burned due to the California ARB Mandate. Following 2002, the current methodology and emission factors will be applied.

Another possible future improvement is to create additional state- or region-specific emission factors for rice cultivation. This prospective improvement would likely not take place for another 2 to 3 years, because the analyses needed for it are currently taking place.

6.4 Agricultural Soil Management (IPCC Source Category 4D)

Nitrous oxide is produced naturally in soils through the microbial processes of nitrification and denitrification.¹⁸¹ A number of agricultural activities increase mineral N availability in soils, thereby increasing the amount available for nitrification and denitrification, and ultimately the amount of N₂O emitted. These activities increase soil mineral N either directly or indirectly (see Figure 6-2). Direct increases occur through a variety of management practices that add or lead to greater release of mineral N to the soil, including fertilization; application of managed livestock manure and other organic materials such as sewage sludge; deposition of manure on soils by domesticated animals in pastures, rangelands, and paddocks (PRP) (i.e., by grazing animals and other animals whose manure is not managed); production of N-fixing crops and forages; retention of crop residues; and drainage of organic soils in croplands and grasslands (i.e., soils with a high organic matter content, otherwise known as Histosols).¹⁸² Other

¹⁸¹ Nitrification and denitrification are driven by the activity of microorganisms in soils. Nitrification is the aerobic microbial oxidation of ammonium (NH₄⁺) to nitrate (NO₃⁻), and denitrification is the anaerobic microbial reduction of nitrate to N₂. Nitrous oxide is a gaseous intermediate product in the reaction sequence of denitrification, which leaks from microbial cells into the soil and then into the atmosphere. Nitrous oxide is also produced during nitrification, although by a less well-understood mechanism (Nevison 2000).

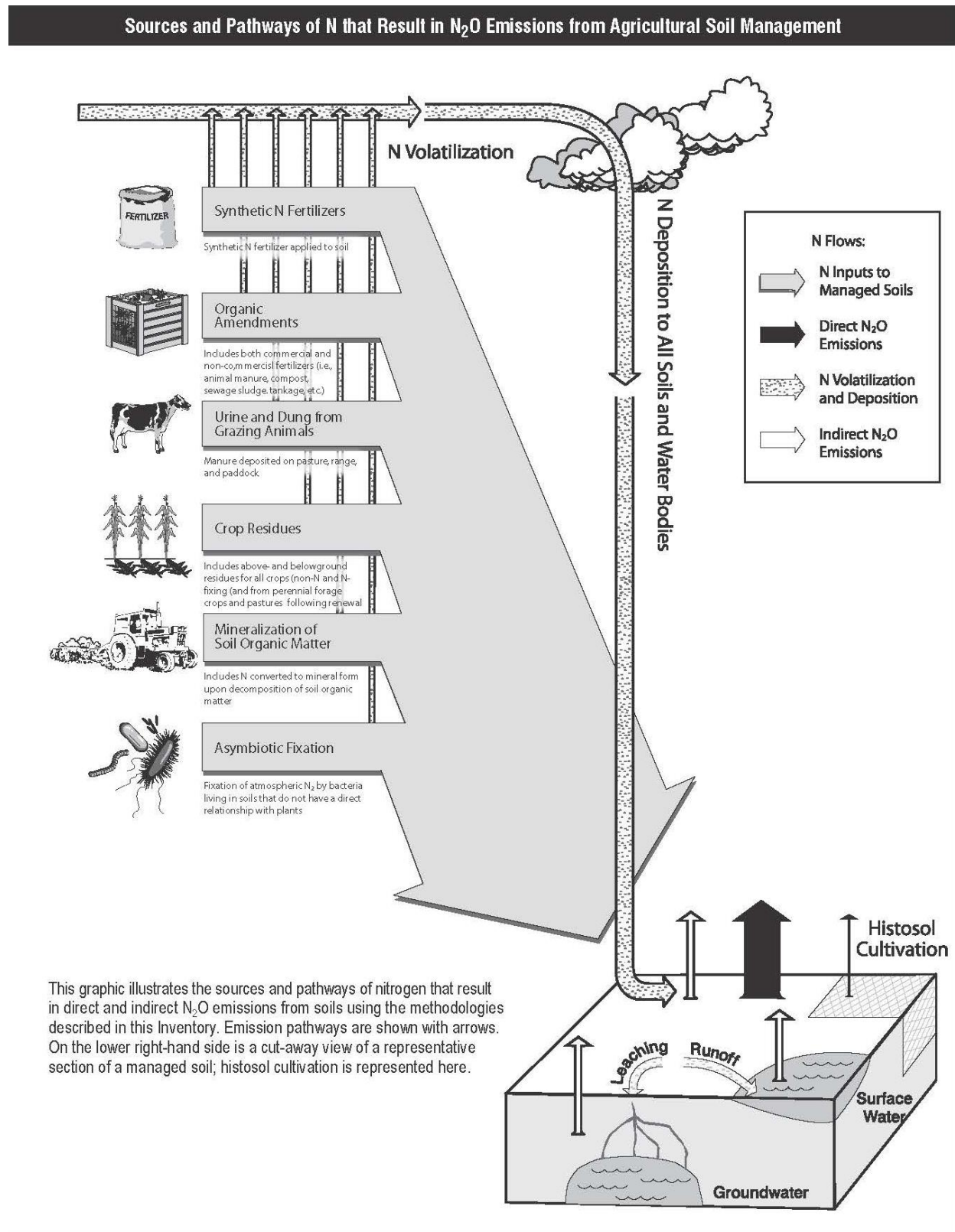
¹⁸² Drainage of organic soils in former wetlands enhances mineralization of N-rich organic matter, thereby increasing N₂O emissions from these soils.

agricultural soil management activities, including irrigation, drainage, tillage practices, and fallowing of land, can influence N mineralization in soils, and thereby affect direct emissions. Mineral N is also made available in soils through decomposition of soil organic matter and plant litter, as well as asymbiotic fixation of N from the atmosphere, and these processes are influenced by agricultural management through impacts on moisture and temperature regimes in soils.¹⁸³ The N mineralization from decomposition of soil organic matter and also asymbiotic N fixation are included based on the recommendation from the IPCC (2006) for complete accounting of management impacts on greenhouse gas emissions, as discussed in the Methodology section. Indirect emissions of N₂O occur through two pathways: (1) volatilization and subsequent atmospheric deposition of applied/mineralized N, and (2) surface runoff and leaching of applied/mineralized N into groundwater and surface water.¹⁸⁴ Direct emissions from agricultural lands (i.e., cropland and grassland as defined in Chapter 7, Land Representation Section) are included in this section, while direct emissions from forest lands and settlements are presented in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter. However, indirect N₂O emissions from all land-uses (cropland, grassland, forest lands, and settlements) are reported in this section.

¹⁸³ Asymbiotic N fixation is the fixation of atmospheric N₂ by bacteria living in soils that do not have a direct relationship with plants.

¹⁸⁴ These processes entail volatilization of applied or mineralized N as NH₃ and NO_x, transformation of these gases within the atmosphere (or upon deposition), and deposition of the N primarily in the form of particulate NH₄⁺, nitric acid (HNO₃), and NO_x.

Figure 6-2: Sources and Pathways of N that Result in N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management



Agricultural soils produce the majority of N₂O emissions in the United States. Estimated emissions from this source in 2012 were 306.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (989 Gg N₂O) (see Table 6-18 and Table 6-19). Annual N₂O emissions from agricultural soils fluctuated between 1990 and 2012, although overall emissions were 8.7 percent higher in 2012 than in 1990. Year-to-year fluctuations are largely a reflection of annual variation in weather patterns, synthetic fertilizer use, and crop production. On average, cropland accounted for approximately 61 percent of total direct emissions, while grassland accounted for approximately 39 percent. The percentages for indirect emissions are approximately 76 percent for croplands, 22 percent for grasslands, and the remaining 2 percent is from forest lands and settlements. Estimated direct and indirect N₂O emissions by sub-source category are shown in Table 6-20 and Table 6-21.

Table 6-18: N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soils (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Direct	240.7	253.3	269.5	267.6	264.0	261.9	260.9
Cropland	155.1	162.8	166.5	165.2	162.1	161.0	159.8
Grassland	85.6	90.5	103.0	102.5	101.9	100.9	101.1
Indirect (All Land-Use Types)	41.4	44.0	49.5	48.8	46.1	45.8	45.7
Cropland	31.6	32.7	38.2	37.6	35.1	35.2	34.9
Grassland	9.5	10.6	10.6	10.4	10.2	9.9	10.2
Forest Land	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Settlements	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Total	282.1	297.3	319.0	316.4	310.1	307.8	306.6

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 6-19: N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soils (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Direct	776	817	869	863	852	845	842
Cropland	500	525	537	533	523	519	515
Grassland	276	292	332	331	329	325	326
Indirect (All Land-Use Types)	134	142	160	157	149	148	147
Cropland	102	105	123	121	113	114	112
Grassland	31	34	34	34	33	32	33
Forest Land	0	+	+	+	+	+	+
Settlements	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total	910	959	1,029	1,021	1,000	993	989

+ Less than 0.5 Gg N₂O

Table 6-20: Direct N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soils by Land Use Type and N Input Type (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Cropland	155.1	162.8	166.5	165.2	162.1	161.0	159.8
Mineral Soils	150.4	158.7	162.5	161.1	158.1	157.0	155.7
Synthetic Fertilizer	65.5	65.8	69.5	69.0	68.6	67.4	67.3
Organic Amendment ^b	14.0	15.3	15.8	15.7	15.4	15.5	15.5
Residue N ^a	3.9	4.8	4.6	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.4
Mineralization and Asymbiotic Fixation	67.0	72.9	72.5	71.8	69.5	69.6	68.5
Organic Soils^e	4.7	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Grassland	85.6	90.5	103.0	102.5	101.9	100.9	101.1
Mineral Soils	85.6	90.5	103.0	102.5	101.9	100.9	101.1
Synthetic Fertilizer	0.5	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9
PRP Manure	24.5	25.5	26.6	26.3	25.8	25.0	25.4
Managed Manure	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Sewage Sludge	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
Residue N ^c	2.0	2.4	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.5
Mineralization and Asymbiotic Fixation	58.2	60.8	72.0	71.9	71.7	71.5	71.3
Total	240.7	253.3	269.5	267.6	264.0	261.9	260.9

^a Cropland residue N inputs include N in unharvested legumes as well as crop residue N.

^b Organic amendment inputs include managed manure amendments, daily spread manure amendments, and commercial organic fertilizers (i.e., dried blood, dried manure, tankage, compost, and other).

^c Grassland residue N inputs include N in ungrazed legumes as well as ungrazed grass residue N

^d Accounts for managed manure and daily spread manure amendments that are applied to grassland soils.

^e Includes drainage of organic soils for both cropland and grasslands.

Table 6-21: Indirect N₂O Emissions from all Land-Use Types (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Cropland	31.6	32.7	38.2	37.6	35.1	35.2	34.9
Volatilization & Atm. Deposition	15.1	15.9	15.5	15.3	15.3	15.5	15.4
Surface Leaching & Run-Off	16.4	16.8	22.7	22.3	19.8	19.8	19.5
Grassland	9.5	10.6	10.6	10.4	10.2	9.9	10.2
Volatilization & Atm. Deposition	4.9	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.4
Surface Leaching & Run-Off	4.5	5.1	5.1	5.0	4.8	4.5	4.8
Forest Land	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Volatilization & Atm. Deposition	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Surface Leaching & Run-Off	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Settlements	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Volatilization & Atm. Deposition	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Surface Leaching & Run-Off	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total	41.4	44.0	49.5	48.8	46.1	45.8	45.7

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Figure 6-3 and Figure 6-6 show regional patterns in direct N₂O emissions, and also show N losses from volatilization, leaching, and runoff that lead to indirect N₂O emissions. Annual emissions and N losses in 2012 are shown for the Tier 3 Approach only.

Direct N₂O emissions from croplands tend to be high in the Corn Belt (Illinois, Iowa, Indiana, Ohio, southern and western Minnesota, eastern and southern Nebraska, in addition to eastern South Dakota and North Dakota), where a large portion of the land is used for growing highly fertilized corn and N-fixing soybean crops (Figure 6-3). New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan and Wisconsin also have relatively high production of corn and soybeans. Direct emissions are high in Kansas, Missouri and Texas, primarily from irrigated cropping in western Texas, dryland wheat in Kansas, and hay cropping in eastern Texas and Missouri. Direct emissions are low in many parts of the eastern United States because a small portion of land is cultivated, and also low in many western states where rainfall and access to irrigation water are limited.

Direct emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq./state/year) from grasslands are highest in the central and western United States (Figure 6-4) where a high proportion of the land is used for cattle grazing. Most areas in the Great Lake states, the Northeast, and Southeast have moderate to low emissions because the total amount of grassland is much lower than in the central and western United States, however, emissions from these areas tend to be higher on a per unit area basis compared to other areas of the country.

Indirect emissions from croplands and grasslands (Figure 6-5 and Figure 6-6) show patterns similar to direct emissions because the factors that control direct emissions (N inputs, weather, soil type) also influence indirect emissions. However, there are some exceptions, because the processes that contribute to indirect emissions (NO₃⁻ leaching, N volatilization) do not respond in exactly the same manner as the processes that control direct emissions (nitrification and denitrification). For example, coarser-textured soils facilitate relatively high indirect emissions in Florida grasslands due to high rates of N volatilization and NO₃⁻ leaching, even though they have only moderate rates of direct N₂O emissions.

Figure 6-3: Crops, Annual Direct N₂O Emissions Estimated Using the Tier 3 DAYCENT Model, 1990-2012 (Tg CO₂ Eq./year)

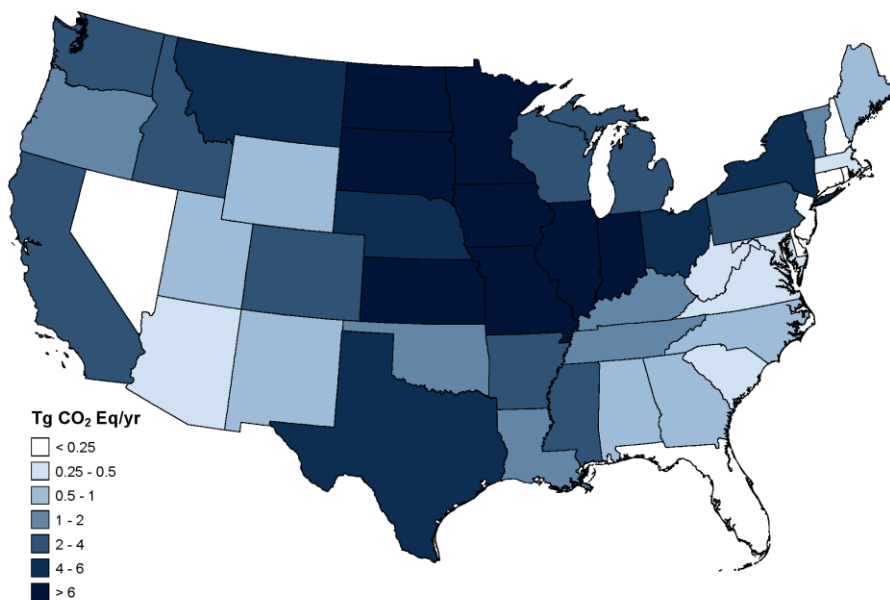


Figure 6-4: Grasslands, Annual Direct N₂O Emissions Estimated Using the Tier 3 DAYCENT Model, 1990-2012 (Tg CO₂ Eq./year)

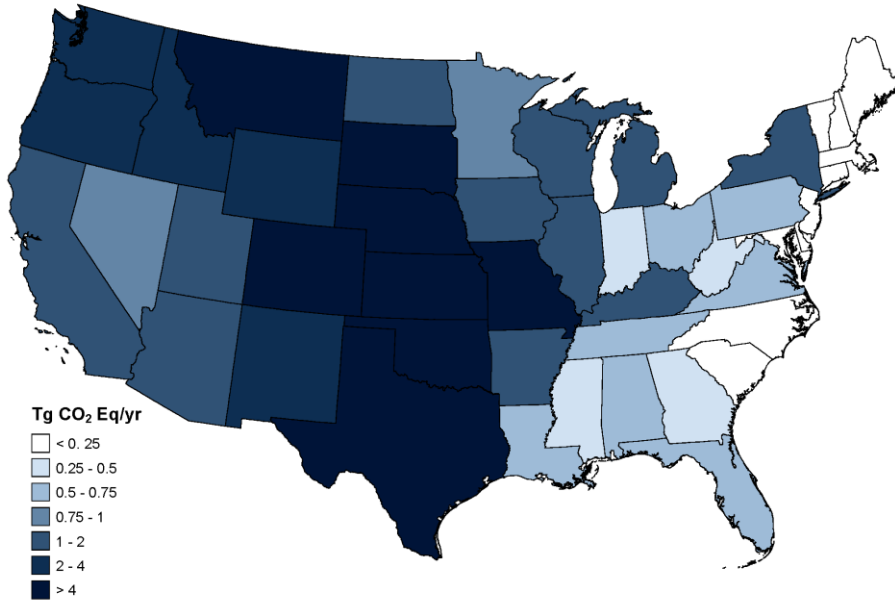


Figure 6-5: Crops, Average Annual N Losses Leading to Indirect N₂O Emissions Estimated Using the Tier 3 DAYCENT Model, 1990-2012 (Gg N/year)

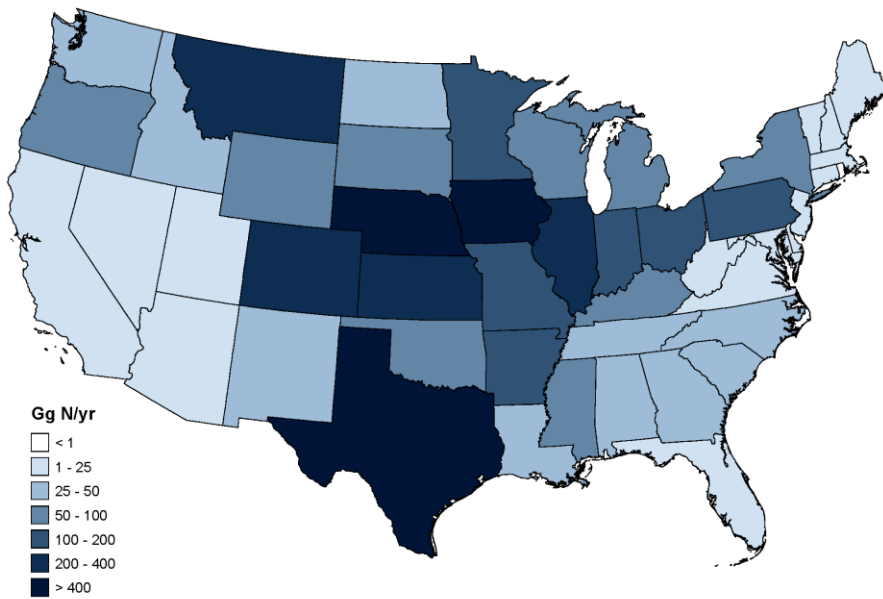
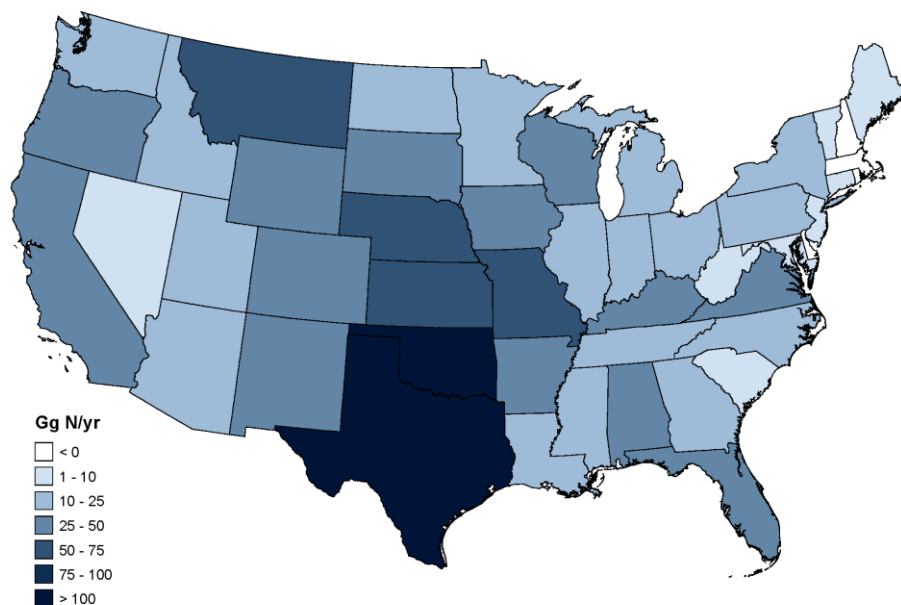


Figure 6-6: Grasslands, Average Annual N Losses Leading to Indirect N₂O Emissions Estimated Using the Tier 3 DAYCENT Model, 1990-2012 (Gg N/year)



Methodology

The 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006) divide the Agricultural Soil Management source category into five components: (1) direct emissions due to N additions to cropland and grassland mineral soils, including synthetic fertilizers, sewage sludge applications, crop residues, organic amendments, and biological N fixation associated with planting of legumes on cropland and grassland soils; (2) direct emissions from soil organic matter mineralization due to land use and management change, (3) direct emissions from drainage of organic soils in croplands and grasslands; (4) direct emissions from soils due to the deposition of manure by livestock on PRP grasslands; and (5) indirect emissions from soils and water due to N additions and manure deposition to soils that lead to volatilization, leaching, or runoff of N and subsequent conversion to N₂O.

The United States has adopted recommendations from IPCC (2006) on methods for agricultural soil management. These recommendations include (1) estimating the contribution of N from crop residues to indirect soil N₂O emissions; (2) adopting a revised emission factor for direct N₂O emissions to the extent that Tier 1 methods are used in the Inventory (described later in this section); (3) removing double counting of emissions from N-fixing crops associated with biological N fixation and crop residue N input categories; (4) using revised crop residue statistics to compute N inputs to soils based on harvest yield data to the extent that Tier 1 methods are used in the Inventory; (5) accounting for indirect as well as direct emissions from N made available via mineralization of soil organic matter and litter, in addition to asymbiotic fixation (i.e., computing total emissions from managed land); (6) reporting all emissions from managed lands because management affects all processes leading to soil N₂O emissions; and (7) estimating emissions associated with land use and management change which can significantly change the N mineralization rates from soil organic matter.¹⁸⁵ One recommendation from IPCC (2006) that has not been

¹⁸⁵ N inputs from asymbiotic N fixation are not directly addressed in 2006 IPCC Guidelines, but are a component of the total emissions from managed lands and are included in the Tier 3 approach developed for this source.

completely adopted is the accounting of emissions from pasture renewal, which involves occasional plowing to improve forage production. Pastures are replanted occasionally in rotation with annual crops, and this practice is represented in the Inventory. However, renewal of pasture that is not occasionally rotated with annual crops is uncommon in the United States, and is not estimated.

Direct N₂O Emissions

The methodology used to estimate direct emissions from agricultural soil management in the United States is based on a combination of IPCC Tier 1 and 3 approaches. A Tier 3 process-based model (DAYCENT) was used to estimate direct emissions from a variety of crops that are grown on mineral soils on mineral (i.e., non-organic) soils, including alfalfa hay, barley, corn, cotton, dry beans, grass hay, grass-clover hay, oats, onions, peanuts, potatoes, rice, sorghum, soybeans, sugar beets, sunflowers, tomatoes, and wheat; as well as the direct emissions from non-federal grasslands with the exception of sewage sludge amendments (Del Grosso et al. 2010). The Tier 3 approach has been specifically designed and tested to estimate N₂O emissions in the United States, accounting for more of the environmental and management influences on soil N₂O emissions than the IPCC Tier 1 method (see Box 6-2 for further elaboration). Moreover, the Tier 3 approach allows for the inventory to address direct N₂O emissions and soil C stock changes from mineral cropland soils in a single analysis. Carbon and N dynamics are linked in plant-soil systems through biogeochemical processes of microbial decomposition and plant production (McGill and Cole 1981). Coupling the two source categories (i.e., agricultural soil C and N₂O) in a single inventory analysis ensures that there is a consistent activity data and treatment of the processes, and interactions are taken into account between C and N cycling in soils.

The Tier 3 approach is based on the cropping and land use histories recorded in the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) survey (USDA-NRCS 2009). The NRI is a statistically-based sample of all non-federal land, and includes 380,956 points in agricultural land for the conterminous United States that are included in the Tier 3 methods.¹⁸⁶ Each point is associated with an “expansion factor” that allows scaling of N₂O emissions from NRI points to the entire country (i.e., each expansion factor represents the amount of area with the same land-use/management history as the sample point). Land-use and some management information (e.g., crop type, soil attributes, and irrigation) were originally collected for each NRI point on a 5-year cycle beginning in 1982. For cropland, data were collected for 4 out of 5 years in the cycle (i.e., 1979-1982, 1984-1987, 1989-1992, and 1994-1997). In 1998, the NRI program began collecting annual data, and data are currently available through 2007.

Box 6-2: Tier 1 vs. Tier 3 Approach for Estimating N₂O Emissions

The IPCC (2006) Tier 1 approach is based on multiplying activity data on different N inputs (e.g., synthetic fertilizer, manure, N fixation, etc.) by the appropriate default IPCC emission factors to estimate N₂O emissions on an input-by-input basis. The Tier 1 approach requires a minimal amount of activity data, readily available in most countries (e.g., total N applied to crops); calculations are simple; and the methodology is highly transparent. In contrast, the Tier 3 approach developed for this Inventory employs a process-based model (i.e., DAYCENT) that represents the interaction of N inputs and the environmental conditions at specific locations. Consequently, the Tier 3 approach produces more accurate estimates; it accounts more comprehensively for land-use and management impacts and their interaction with environmental factors (i.e., weather patterns and soil characteristics), which will enhance or dampen anthropogenic influences. However, the Tier 3 approach requires more detailed activity data (e.g., crop-specific N amendment rates), additional data inputs (e.g., daily weather, soil types, etc.), and considerable computational resources and programming expertise. The Tier 3 methodology is less transparent, and thus it is critical to evaluate the output of Tier 3 methods against measured data in order to demonstrate the adequacy of the method for estimating emissions (IPCC 2006). Another important difference between the Tier 1 and Tier 3 approaches relates to assumptions regarding N cycling. Tier 1 assumes that N added to a system is subject to N₂O emissions only during that year and cannot be stored in soils and contribute to N₂O emissions in subsequent years. This is a simplifying assumption that is likely to create bias in estimated N₂O emissions for a specific year. In

¹⁸⁶ NRI points were classified as agricultural if under grassland or cropland management between 1990 and 2007. There are another 148,731 NRI survey points that are cropland and are not included in the Tier 3 analysis. The soil N₂O emissions associated with these points are estimated with the IPCC Tier 1 method.

contrast, the process-based model used in the Tier 3 approach includes the legacy effect of N added to soils in previous years that is re-mineralized from soil organic matter and emitted as N₂O during subsequent years.

The Tier 1 IPCC (2006) methodology was used to estimate (1) direct emissions from crops on mineral soils that are not simulated by DayCent (e.g., tobacco, sugarcane, orchards, vineyards, and other crops); (2) direct emissions from Pasture/Range/Paddock on federal grasslands, which were not estimated with the Tier 3 DAYCENT model; and (3) direct emissions from drainage of organic soils in croplands and grasslands.

Tier 3 Approach for Mineral Cropland Soils

The DAYCENT biogeochemical model (Parton et al. 1998; Del Grosso et al. 2001, 2011) was used to estimate direct N₂O emissions from mineral cropland soils that are managed for production of a wide variety of crops based on the cropping histories in the National Resources Inventory (USDA-NRCS 2009). The crops include alfalfa hay, barley, corn, cotton, dry beans, grass hay, grass-clover hay, oats, onions, peanuts, potatoes, rice, sorghum, soybeans, sugar beets, sunflowers, tomatoes, and wheat. Crops simulated by DAYCENT are grown on approximately 93 percent of total cropland area in the United States. For agricultural systems in the central region of the United States, crop production for key crops (i.e., corn, soybeans, sorghum, cotton and wheat) is simulated with NASA-CASA production algorithm (Potter et al. 1993; Potter et al. 2007) using the MODIS Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) products, MOD13Q1 and MYD13Q1, with a pixel resolution of 250m. A prediction algorithm was developed to estimate EVI (Gurung et al. 2009) for gap-filling during years over the inventory time series when EVI data were not available (e.g., data from the MODIS sensor were only available after 2000 following the launch of the Aqua and Terra Satellites; see Annex 3.11 for more information). DAYCENT also simulated soil organic matter decomposition, greenhouse gas fluxes, and key biogeochemical processes affecting N₂O emissions.

DAYCENT was used to estimate direct N₂O emissions due to mineral N available from the following sources: (1) the application of synthetic fertilizers; (2) the application of livestock manure; (3) the retention of crop residues and subsequent mineralization of N during microbial decomposition (i.e., leaving residues in the field after harvest instead of burning or collecting residues); and (4) mineralization of soil organic matter, in addition to asymbiotic fixation. Note that commercial organic fertilizers are addressed with the Tier 1 method because county-level application data would be needed to simulate applications in DAYCENT, and currently data are only available at the national scale. The third and fourth sources are generated internally by the DAYCENT model.

Synthetic fertilizer data were based on fertilizer use and rates by crop type for different regions of the United States that were obtained primarily from the USDA Economic Research Service Cropping Practices Survey (USDA-ERS 1997, 2011) with additional data from other sources, including the National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS 1992, 1999, 2004). Frequency and rates of livestock manure application to cropland during 1997 were estimated from data compiled by the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service (Edmonds et al. 2003), and then adjusted using county-level estimates of manure available for application in other years. The adjustments were based on county-scale ratios of manure available for application to soils in other years relative to 1997 (see Annex 3.12 for further details). Greater availability of managed manure N relative to 1997 was assumed to increase the area amended with manure, while reduced availability of manure N relative to 1997 was assumed to reduce the amended area. Data on the county-level N available for application were estimated for managed systems based on the total amount of N excreted in manure minus N losses during storage and transport, and including the addition of N from bedding materials. Nitrogen losses include direct N₂O emissions, volatilization of ammonia and NO_x, runoff and leaching, and poultry manure used as a feed supplement. For unmanaged systems, it is assumed that no N losses or additions occur prior to the application of manure to the soil. More information on livestock manure production is available in the Manure Management Section 6.2 and Annex 3.11.

The IPCC approach considers crop residue N and N mineralized from soil organic matter as activity data. However, they are not treated as activity data in DAYCENT simulations because residue production, symbiotic N fixation (e.g., legumes), mineralization of N from soil organic matter, and asymbiotic N fixation are internally generated by the model as part of the simulation. In other words, DAYCENT accounts for the influence of symbiotic N fixation, mineralization of N from soil organic matter and crop residue retained in the field, and asymbiotic N fixation on N₂O emissions, but these are not model inputs. The DAYCENT simulations also accounted for the approximately 3 percent of all crop residues that were assumed to be burned based on state inventory data (ILENR 1993; Oregon

Department of Energy 1995; Noller 1996; Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources 1993; Cibrowski 1996), and therefore N₂O emissions were reduced by 3 percent from crop residues to account for the burning.

Additional sources of data were used to supplement the mineral N (USDA ERS 1997, 2011), livestock manure (Edmonds et al. 2003), and land-use information (USDA-NRCS 2009). The Conservation Technology Information Center (CTIC 2004) provided annual data on tillage activity with adjustments for long-term adoption of no-till agriculture (Towery 2001). Tillage data has an influence on soil organic matter decomposition and subsequent soil N₂O emissions. The time series of tillage data began in 1989 and ended in 2004, so further changes in tillage practices since 2004 are not currently captured in the inventory. Daily weather data were used as an input in the model simulations, based on gridded weather data at a 32 km scale from the North America Regional Reanalysis Product (NARR) (Mesinger et al. 2006). Soil attributes were obtained from the Soil Survey Geographic Database (SSURGO) (Soil Survey Staff 2011).

Each NRI point was run 100 times as part of the uncertainty assessment, yielding a total of over 18 million simulations for the analysis. Soil N₂O emission estimates from DAYCENT were adjusted using a structural uncertainty estimator accounting for uncertainty in model algorithms and parameter values (Del Grosso et al. 2010). Soil N₂O emissions and 95 percent confidence intervals were estimated for each year between 1990 and 2007, but emissions from 2008 to 2012 were assumed to be similar to 2007 because no additional activity data are currently available from the NRI for the latter years.

Nitrous oxide emissions from managed agricultural lands are the result of interactions among anthropogenic activities (e.g., N fertilization, manure application, tillage) and other driving variables, such as weather and soil characteristics. These factors influence key processes associated with N dynamics in the soil profile, including immobilization of N by soil microbial organisms, decomposition of organic matter, plant uptake, leaching, runoff, and volatilization, as well as the processes leading to N₂O production (nitrification and denitrification). It is not possible to partition N₂O emissions into each anthropogenic activity directly from model outputs due to the complexity of the interactions (e.g., N₂O emissions from synthetic fertilizer applications cannot be distinguished from those resulting from manure applications). To approximate emissions by activity, the amount of mineral N added to the soil for each of these sources was determined and then divided by the total amount of mineral N that was made available in the soil according to the DAYCENT model. The percentages were then multiplied by the total of direct N₂O emissions in order to approximate the portion attributed to key practices. This approach is only an approximation because it assumes that all N made available in soil has an equal probability of being released as N₂O, regardless of its source, which is unlikely to be the case (Delgado et al., 2009). However, this approach allows for further disaggregation of emissions by source of N, which is valuable for reporting purposes and is analogous to the reporting associated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method, in that it associates portions of the total soil N₂O emissions with individual sources of N.

Tier 1 Approach for Mineral Cropland Soils

The IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methodology was used to estimate direct N₂O emissions for mineral cropland soils that are managed for production of crop types not simulated by DAYCENT, such as tobacco, sugarcane, and millet. For the Tier 1 Approach, estimates of direct N₂O emissions from N applications were based on mineral soil N that was made available from the following practices: (1) the application of synthetic commercial fertilizers; (2) application of managed manure and non-manure commercial organic fertilizers; and (3) the retention of above- and below-ground crop residues in agricultural fields (i.e., crop biomass that is not harvested). Non-manure commercial organic amendments were not included in the DAYCENT simulations because county-level data were not available.¹⁸⁷ Consequently, commercial organic fertilizer, as well as additional manure that was not added to crops in the DAYCENT simulations, were included in the Tier 1 analysis. The influence of land-use change on soil N₂O emissions in the Tier 1 approach has not been addressed in this analysis, but is a planned improvement. The following sources were used to derive activity data:

¹⁸⁷ Commercial organic fertilizers include dried blood, tankage, compost, and other, but the dried manure and sewage sludge is removed from the dataset in order to avoid double counting with other datasets that are used for manure N and sewage sludge.

- A process-of-elimination approach was used to estimate synthetic N fertilizer additions for crops not simulated by DAYCENT, because little information exists on their fertilizer application rates. The total amount of fertilizer used on farms has been estimated at the count- level by the USGS from sales records (Ruddy et al. 2006), and these data were aggregated to obtain state-level N additions to farms. For 2002 through 2012, state-level fertilizer for on-farm use is adjusted based on annual fluctuations in total U.S. fertilizer sales (AAPFCO 1995 through 2012).¹⁸⁸ After subtracting the portion of fertilizer applied to crops and grasslands simulated by DAYCENT (see Tier 3 Approach for Cropland Mineral Soils Section and Grasslands Section for information on data sources), the remainder of the total fertilizer used on farms was assumed to be applied to crops that were not simulated by DAYCENT.
- Similarly, a process-of-elimination approach was used to estimate manure N additions for crops that were not simulated by DAYCENT because little information exists on application rates for these crops. The amount of manure N applied in the Tier 3 approach to crops and grasslands was subtracted from total manure N available for land application (see Tier 3 Approach for Cropland Mineral Soils Section and Grasslands Section for information on data sources), and this difference was assumed to be applied to crops that are not simulated by DAYCENT.
- Commercial organic fertilizer additions were based on organic fertilizer consumption statistics, which were converted to units of N using average organic fertilizer N content (TVA 1991 through 1994; AAPFCO 1995 through 2011). Commercial fertilizers do include some manure and sewage sludge, but the amounts are removed from the commercial fertilizer data to avoid double counting with the manure N dataset described above and the sewage sludge amendment data discussed later in this section.
- Crop residue N was derived by combining amounts of above- and below-ground biomass, which were determined based on crop production yield statistics (USDA 1994, 1998, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2008, 2009, 2010a), dry matter fractions (IPCC 2006), linear equations to estimate above-ground biomass given dry matter crop yields from harvest (IPCC 2006), ratios of below-to-above-ground biomass (IPCC 2006), and N contents of the residues (IPCC 2006).

The total increase in soil mineral N from applied fertilizers and crop residues was multiplied by the IPCC (2006) default emission factor to derive an estimate of direct N₂O emissions using the Tier 1 Approach.

Drainage of Organic Soils in Croplands and Grasslands

The IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methods were used to estimate direct N₂O emissions due to drainage of organic soils in croplands or grasslands at a state scale. State-scale estimates of the total area of drained organic soils were obtained from the National Resources Inventory (NRI) (USDA-NRCS 2009) using soils data from the Soil Survey Geographic Database (SSURGO) (Soil Survey Staff 2011). Temperature data from Daly et al. (1994, 1998) were used to subdivide areas into temperate and tropical climates using the climate classification from IPCC (2006). Annual data were available between 1990 and 2007. Emissions are assumed to be similar to 2007 from 2008 to 2012 because no additional activity data are currently available from the NRI for the latter years. To estimate annual emissions, the total temperate area was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor for temperate regions, and the total tropical area was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor for tropical regions (IPCC 2006).

Direct N₂O Emissions from Grassland Soils

As with N₂O from croplands, the Tier 3 process-based DAYCENT model and Tier 1 method described in IPCC (2006) were combined to estimate emissions from non-federal grasslands and Pasture/Range/Paddock manure N additions for federal grasslands, respectively. Grasslands include pastures and rangelands used for grass forage production, where the primary use is livestock grazing. Rangelands are typically extensive areas of native

¹⁸⁸ Values were not available for 2012 so a “least squares line” statistical extrapolation using the previous 5 years of data is used to arrive at an approximate value.

grasslands that are not intensively managed, while pastures are often seeded grasslands, possibly following tree removal, which may or may not be improved with practices such as irrigation and interseeding legumes.

DAYCENT was used to simulate N₂O emissions from NRI survey locations (USDA-NRCS 2009) on non-federal grasslands resulting from manure deposited by livestock directly onto pastures and rangelands (i.e., PRP manure), N fixation from legume seeding, managed manure amendments (i.e., manure other than PRP manure such as Daily Spread), and synthetic fertilizer application. Other N inputs were simulated within the DAYCENT framework, including N input from mineralization due to decomposition of soil organic matter and N inputs from senesced grass litter, as well as asymbiotic fixation of N from the atmosphere. The simulations used the same weather, soil, and synthetic N fertilizer data as discussed under the Tier 3 Approach for Mineral Cropland Soils section. Managed manure N amendments to grasslands were estimated from Edmonds et al. (2003) and adjusted for annual variation using data on the availability of managed manure N for application to soils, according to methods described in the Manure Management section (Section 6.2) and Annex 3.11. Biological N fixation is simulated within DAYCENT, and therefore was not an input to the model.

Manure N deposition from grazing animals in Pasture/Range/Paddock systems (i.e., PRP manure) is another key input of N to grasslands. The amounts of PRP manure N applied on non-federal grasslands for each NRI point were based on amount of N excreted by livestock in PRP systems. The total amount of N excreted in each county was divided by the grassland area to estimate the N input rate associated with PRP manure. The resulting input rates were used in the DAYCENT simulations. DAYCENT simulations of non-federal grasslands accounted for approximately 68 percent of total PRP manure N in aggregate across the country. The remainder of the PRP manure N in each state was assumed to be excreted on federal grasslands, and the N₂O emissions were estimated using the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method with IPCC default emission factors. Sewage sludge was assumed to be applied on grasslands because of the heavy metal content and other pollutants in human waste that limit its use as an amendment to croplands. Sewage sludge application was estimated from data compiled by EPA (1993, 1999, 2003), McFarland (2001), and NEBRA (2007). Sewage sludge data on soil amendments to agricultural lands were only available at the national scale, and it was not possible to associate application with specific soil conditions and weather at the county scale. Therefore, DAYCENT could not be used to simulate the influence of sewage sludge amendments on N₂O emissions from grassland soils, and consequently, emissions from sewage sludge were estimated using the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method.

Grassland area data were consistent with the Land Representation reported in Section 7.1 for the conterminous United States. Data were obtained from the U.S. Department of Agriculture National Resources Inventory (NRI)¹⁸⁹ and the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) National Land Cover Dataset, which were reconciled with the Forest Inventory and Analysis Data.¹⁹⁰ The area data for pastures and rangeland were aggregated to the county level to estimate non-federal and federal grassland areas.¹⁹¹

N₂O emissions for the PRP manure N deposited on federal grasslands and applied sewage sludge N were estimated using the Tier 1 method by multiplying the N input by the appropriate emission factor. Emissions from manure N were estimated at the state level and aggregated to the entire country, but emissions from sewage sludge N were calculated exclusively at the national scale.

As previously mentioned, each NRI point was simulated 100 times as part of the uncertainty assessment, yielding a total of over 18 million simulation runs for the analysis. Soil N₂O emission estimates from DAYCENT were adjusted using a structural uncertainty estimator accounting for uncertainty in model algorithms and parameter values (Del Grosso et al. 2010). Soil N₂O emissions and 95 percent confidence intervals were estimated for each year between 1990 and 2007, but emissions from 2008 to 2012 were assumed to be similar to 2007 because no additional activity data are currently available from the NRI for the latter years.

¹⁸⁹ USDA-NRCS 2009, Nusser and Goebel 1997, <<http://www.ncgc.nrcs.usda.gov/products/nri/index.htm>>.

¹⁹⁰ Forest Inventory and Analysis Data, <<http://fia.fs.us/tools-data/data>>.

¹⁹¹ NLCD, Vogelmann et al. 2001, <<http://www.mrlc.gov>>.

Total Direct N₂O Emissions from Cropland and Grassland Soils

Annual direct emissions from the Tier 1 and 3 approaches for cropland mineral soils, from drainage and cultivation of organic cropland soils, and from grassland soils were summed to obtain the total direct N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management (see Table 6-18 and Table 6-19).

Indirect N₂O Emissions

This section describes the methods used for estimating indirect soil N₂O emissions from all land-use types (i.e., croplands, grasslands, forest lands, and settlements). Indirect N₂O emissions occur when mineral N made available through anthropogenic activity is transported from the soil either in gaseous or aqueous forms and later converted into N₂O. There are two pathways leading to indirect emissions. The first pathway results from volatilization of N as NO_x and NH₃ following application of synthetic fertilizer, organic amendments (e.g., manure, sewage sludge), and deposition of PRP manure. N made available from mineralization of soil organic matter and residue, including N incorporated into crops and forage from symbiotic N fixation, and input of N from asymbiotic fixation also contributes to volatilized N emissions. Volatilized N can be returned to soils through atmospheric deposition, and a portion of the deposited N is emitted to the atmosphere as N₂O. The second pathway occurs via leaching and runoff of soil N (primarily in the form of NO₃⁻) that was made available through anthropogenic activity on managed lands, mineralization of soil organic matter and residue, including N incorporated into crops and forage from symbiotic N fixation, and inputs of N into the soil from asymbiotic fixation. The NO₃⁻ is subject to denitrification in water bodies, which leads to N₂O emissions. Regardless of the eventual location of the indirect N₂O emissions, the emissions are assigned to the original source of the N for reporting purposes, which here includes croplands, grasslands, forest lands, and settlements.

Indirect N₂O Emissions from Atmospheric Deposition of Volatilized N from Managed Soils

As in the direct emissions calculation, the Tier 3 DAYCENT model and IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methods were combined to estimate the amount of N that was volatilized and eventually emitted as N₂O. DAYCENT was used to estimate N volatilization for land areas whose direct emissions were simulated with DAYCENT (i.e., most commodity and some specialty crops and most grasslands). The N inputs included are the same as described for direct N₂O emissions in the Tier 3 Approach for Cropland Mineral Soils Section and Grasslands Section. Nitrogen volatilization for all other areas was estimated using the Tier 1 method and default IPCC fractions for N subject to volatilization (i.e., N inputs on croplands not simulated by DAYCENT, PRP manure N excreted on federal grasslands, sewage sludge application on grasslands). The Tier 1 method and default fractions were also used to estimate N subject to volatilization from N inputs on settlements and forest lands (see the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter). For the volatilization data generated from both the DAYCENT and Tier 1 approaches, the IPCC (2006) default emission factor was used to estimate indirect N₂O emissions occurring due to re-deposition of the volatilized N (Table 6-21).

Indirect N₂O Emissions from Leaching/Runoff

As with the calculations of indirect emissions from volatilized N, the Tier 3 DAYCENT model and IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method were combined to estimate the amount of N that was subject to leaching and surface runoff into water bodies, and eventually emitted as N₂O. DAYCENT was used to simulate the amount of N transported from lands in the Tier 3 Approach. N transport from all other areas was estimated using the Tier 1 method and the IPCC (2006) default factor for the proportion of N subject to leaching and runoff. This N transport estimate includes N applications on croplands that were not simulated by DAYCENT, sewage sludge amendments on grasslands, PRP manure N excreted on federal grasslands, and N inputs on settlements and forest lands. For both the DAYCENT Tier 3 and IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methods, nitrate leaching was assumed to be an insignificant source of indirect N₂O in cropland and grassland systems in arid regions as discussed in IPCC (2006). In the United States, the threshold for significant nitrate leaching is based on the potential evapotranspiration (PET) and rainfall amount, similar to IPCC (2006), and is assumed to be negligible in regions where the amount of precipitation plus irrigation does not exceed 80 percent of PET. For leaching and runoff data estimated by the Tier 3 and Tier 1 approaches, the IPCC (2006) default emission factor was used to estimate indirect N₂O emissions that occur in groundwater and waterways (Table 6-21).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty was estimated for each of the following five components of N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management: (1) direct emissions simulated by DAYCENT; (2) the components of indirect emissions (N volatilized and leached or runoff) simulated by DAYCENT; (3) direct emissions approximated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method; (4) the components of indirect emissions (N volatilized and leached or runoff) approximated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method; and (5) indirect emissions estimated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method. Uncertainty in direct emissions, which account for the majority of N₂O emissions from agricultural management, as well as the components of indirect emissions calculated by DAYCENT were estimated with a Monte Carlo Analysis, addressing uncertainties in model inputs and structure (i.e., algorithms and parameterization) (Del Grosso et al. 2010). Uncertainties in direct emissions calculated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method, the proportion of volatilization and leaching or runoff estimated with the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method, and indirect N₂O emissions were estimated with a simple error propagation approach (IPCC 2006). Uncertainties from the Tier 1 and Tier 3 (i.e., DAYCENT) estimates were combined using simple error propagation (IPCC 2006). Additional details on the uncertainty methods are provided in Annex 3.11. The combined uncertainty for direct soil N₂O emissions ranged from 17 percent below to 28 percent above the 2012 emissions estimate of 260.9 Tg CO₂ Eq., and the combined uncertainty for indirect soil N₂O emissions ranged from 45 percent below to 151 percent above the 2012 estimate of 45.7 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 6-22: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates of N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management in 2012 (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Direct Soil N ₂ O Emissions	N ₂ O	260.9	215.4	334.4	-17%	28%
Indirect Soil N ₂ O Emissions	N ₂ O	45.7	25.3	114.5	-45%	151%

Note: Due to lack of data, uncertainties in managed manure N production, PRP manure N production, other organic fertilizer amendments, and sewage sludge amendments to soils are currently treated as certain; these sources of uncertainty will be included in future Inventories.

Additional uncertainty is associated with no estimation of N₂O emissions for croplands and grasslands in Hawaii and Alaska, with the exception of drainage for organic soils in Hawaii. Agriculture is not extensive in either state so the emissions are likely to be small compared to the conterminous United States.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section above.

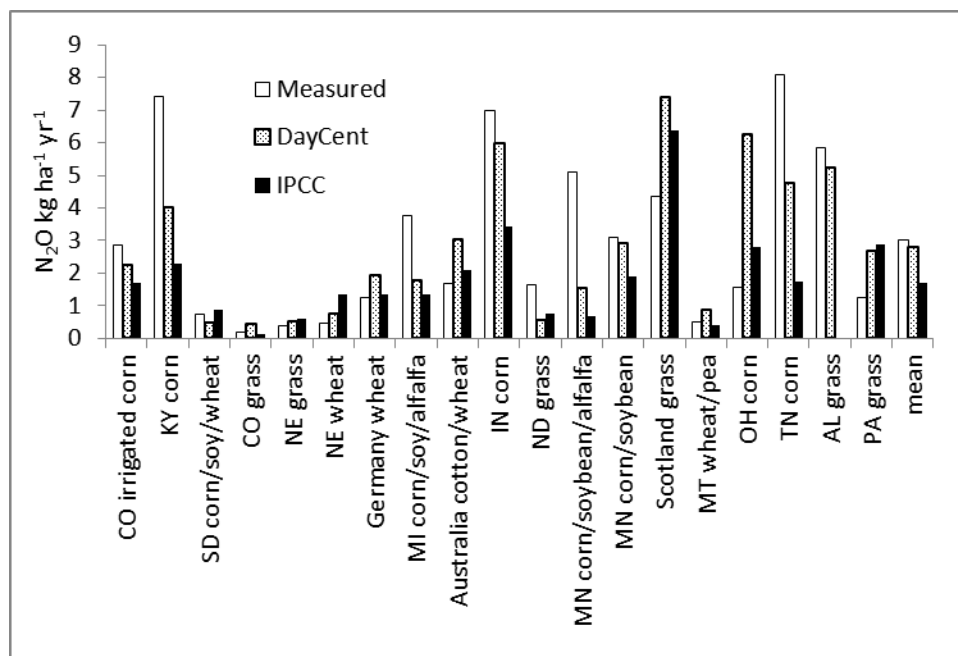
QA/QC and Verification

DAYCENT results for N₂O emissions and NO₃⁻ leaching were compared with field data representing various cropland and grassland systems, soil types, and climate patterns (Del Grosso et al. 2005, Del Grosso et al. 2008), and further evaluated by comparing to emission estimates produced using the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 method for the same sites. Nitrous oxide measurement data were available for 24 sites in the United States, 5 in Europe, and one in Australia, representing over 60 different combinations of fertilizer treatments and cultivation practices. DAYCENT estimates of N₂O emissions were closer to measured values at most sites compared to the IPCC Tier 1 estimate (Figure 6-7). In general, IPCC Tier 1 methodology tends to over-estimate emissions when observed values are low and under-estimate emissions when observed values are high, while DAYCENT estimates are less biased.

DAYCENT accounts for key site-level factors (weather, soil characteristics, and management) that are not addressed in the IPCC Tier 1 Method, and thus the model is better able to represent the variability in N₂O emissions. Nitrate leaching data were available for four sites in the United States, representing 12 different combinations of fertilizer

amendments/tillage practices. DAYCENT does have a tendency to under-estimate very high N₂O emission rates; estimates are increased to correct for this bias based on a statistical model derived from the comparison of model estimates to measurements (See Annex 3.11 for more information). Regardless, the comparison demonstrates that DAYCENT provides relatively high predictive capability for N₂O emissions and NO₃⁻ leaching, and is an improvement over the IPCC Tier 1 method.

Figure 6-7: Comparison of Measured Emissions at Field Sites and Modeled Emissions Using the DAYCENT Simulation Model and IPCC Tier 1 Approach.



Spreadsheets containing input data and probability distribution functions required for DAYCENT simulations of croplands and grasslands and unit conversion factors were checked, as were the program scripts that were used to run the Monte Carlo uncertainty analysis. Links between spreadsheets were checked, updated, and corrected when necessary. Spreadsheets containing input data, emission factors, and calculations required for the Tier 1 approach were checked and an error was found relating to residue N inputs. Some crops that were simulated by DAYCENT were also included in the Tier 1 method. To correct this double-counting of N inputs, residue inputs from crops simulated by DAYCENT were removed from the Tier 1 calculations.

Recalculations Discussion

Methodological recalculations in the current Inventory were associated with the following improvements: 1) Driving the DAYCENT simulations with input data for the excretion of C and N onto Pasture/Range/Paddock based on national livestock population data instead being internally generated by the DAYCENT model (note that revised total PRP N additions increased from 6.9 to 7.2 Tg N on average); 2) expanding the number of experimental study sites used to quantify model uncertainty for direct N₂O emissions and bias correction; 3) refining the temperature algorithm that is used for simulating crop production and carbon inputs to the soil in the DAYCENT biogeochemical model; and (4) recalculation of Tier 2 organic soil N₂O emissions using annual data from the NRI rather than estimating emissions for every 5 years and holding emissions constant between the years. These changes resulted in an increase in emissions of approximately 23 per cent on average relative to the previous Inventory and a decrease in the upper bound of the 95 percent confidence interval for direct N₂O emissions from 40 to 29 percent. The

differences are mainly due to the refinement of temperature algorithm in the model and expansion of the number of field studies used to develop the statistical function for estimating uncertainty in the model structure and parameters. In particular, additional studies showed very high N₂O emissions during some years that were not captured by DAYCENT. This resulted in a relatively large adjustment in a portion of the DAYCENT simulated N₂O emissions to capture the high N₂O emission rates.

Planned Improvements

Several planned improvements are underway. The first is to update the time series of land use and management data from the USDA National Resources Inventory so that it is extended from 2008 through 2010. Fertilization and tillage activity data will also be updated as part of this improvement. The remote-sensing based data on the Enhanced Vegetation Index will be extended through 2010 in order to use the EVI data to drive crop production in DAYCENT. The update will extend the time series of activity data for the Tier 2 and 3 analyses through 2010, and incorporate latest changes in agricultural production for the United States.

Second, improvements are planned for the DAYCENT biogeochemical model. Model structure will be improved with a better representation of plant phenology, particularly senescence events following grain filling in crops, such as wheat. In addition, crop parameters associated with temperature effects on plant production will be further improved in DAYCENT with additional model calibration.

Experimental study sites will continue to be added for quantifying model structural uncertainty. Studies that have continuous (daily) measurements of N₂O (e.g., Scheer et al. 2013) will be given priority because they provide more robust estimates of annual emissions compared to studies that sample trace gas emissions weekly or less frequently.

Another planned improvement is to account for the use of fertilizers formulated with nitrification inhibitors in addition to slow-release fertilizers (e.g., polymer-coated fertilizers). Field data suggests that nitrification inhibitors and slow-release fertilizers reduce N₂O emissions significantly. The DAYCENT model can represent nitrification inhibitors and slow-release fertilizers, but accounting for these in national simulations is contingent on testing the model with a sufficient number of field studies and collection of activity data about the use of these fertilizers.

An improvement is also underway to simulate crop residue burning in the DAYCENT based on the amount of crop residues burned according to the data that is used in the Field Burning of Agricultural Residues source category (Section 6.5). The methodology for Field Burning of Agricultural Residues was significantly updated recently, but the new estimates of crop residues burned have not been incorporated into the Agricultural Soil Management source. Moreover, the data have only been used to reduce the N₂O after DAYCENT simulations in the current Inventory, but the planned improvement is to drive the simulations with burning events based on the new spatial data that is used in Section 6.5.

Also, the treatment of N excretion from Pasture, Range and Paddock manure in both the Manure Management and Agricultural Soil Management sections will be reconciled to ensure consistency in the next version of the Inventory. Currently some managed manure, in addition to daily spread as noted in the methodology section, is included in the Pasture, Range and Paddock manure for Agricultural Soil Management resulting in minor differences.

All of these improvements are expected to be completed for the 1990 through 2013 Inventory report. However, the time line may be extended if there are insufficient resources to fund all or part of these planned improvements.

Alaska and Hawaii are not included in the current Inventory for agricultural soil management, with the exception of N₂O emissions from drained organic soils in croplands and grasslands for Hawaii. Some minor crops that should be in the Tier 1 analysis are also missing from the analysis, which will be added as a planned improvement. A planned improvement over the next two years is to add these states into the Inventory analysis.

6.5 Field Burning of Agricultural Residues (IPCC Source Category 4F)

Farming activities produce large quantities of agricultural crop residues, and farmers use or dispose of these residues in a variety of ways. For example, agricultural residues can be left on or plowed into the field; collected and used as fuel, animal bedding material, supplemental animal feed, or construction material; composted and then applied to soils; landfilled; or, as discussed in the chapter, burned in the field. Field burning of crop residues is not considered a net source of CO₂, because the C released to the atmosphere as CO₂ during burning is assumed to be reabsorbed during the next growing season. Crop residue burning is, however, a net source of CH₄, N₂O, CO, and NO_x, which are released during combustion.

Field burning of agricultural residues is not a common method of disposal in the United States. In the United States, the primary crop types whose residues may be burned are corn, cotton, lentils, rice, soybeans, sugarcane, and wheat (McCarty 2009). In 2012, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from field burning of agricultural residues were 0.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (12 Gg) and 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.3 Gg), respectively. Annual emissions from this source over the period 1990 to 2012 have remained relatively constant, averaging approximately 0.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (12 Gg) of CH₄ and 0.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.3 Gg) of N₂O (see Table 6-23 and Table 6-24).

Table 6-23: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Crop Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Corn	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cotton	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lentils	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	+	+	+	+	0.1	+	+
Soybeans	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	0.1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wheat	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
N₂O	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Corn	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cotton	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lentils	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Soybeans	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wheat	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 6-24: CH₄, N₂O, CO, and NO_x Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues (Gg)

Gas/Crop Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	13	9	13	12	11	12	12
Corn	1	1	1	2	2	2	2
Cotton	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lentils	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Soybeans	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Sugarcane	3	1	2	2	2	2	2
Wheat	6	4	6	5	5	5	5
N₂O	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Corn	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cotton	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Lentils	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Soybeans	+		+		+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	+		+		+	+	+	+
Wheat	+		+		+	+	+	+
CO	268		184		270	247	241	255
NO_x	8		6		8	8	8	8

+ Less than 0.5 Gg.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

The Tier 2 methodology used for estimating greenhouse gas emissions from field burning of agricultural residues is consistent with IPCC (2006) (for more details, see Box 6-3). In order to estimate the amounts of C and N released during burning, the following equation was used:

$$\text{C or N released} = \sum \text{for all crop types and states} \left[\frac{\text{AB}}{\text{CAH} \times \text{CP} \times \text{RCR} \times \text{DMF} \times \text{BE} \times \text{CE} \times (\text{FC or FN})} \right]$$

where,

Area Burned (AB)	=	Total area of crop burned, by state
Crop Area Harvested (CAH)	=	Total area of crop harvested, by state
Crop Production (CP)	=	Annual production of crop in Gg, by state
Residue/Crop Ratio (RCR)	=	Amount of residue produced per unit of crop production, by state
Dry Matter Fraction (DMF)	=	Amount of dry matter per unit of biomass for a crop
Fraction of C or N (FC or FN)	=	Amount of C or N per unit of dry matter for a crop
Burning Efficiency (BE)	=	The proportion of prefire fuel biomass consumed ¹⁹²
Combustion Efficiency (CE)	=	The proportion of C or N released with respect to the total amount of C or N available in the burned material, respectively

Crop production and area harvested were available by state and year from USDA (2012) for all crops (except rice in Florida and Oklahoma, as detailed below). The amount C or N released was used in the following equation to determine the CH₄, CO, N₂O and NO_x emissions from the field burning of agricultural residues:

$$\text{CH}_4 \text{ and CO, or N}_2\text{O and NO}_x \text{ Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues} = \text{C or N Released} \times \text{ER for C or N} \times \text{CF}$$

where,

Emissions Ratio (ER)	=	g CH ₄ -C or CO-C/g C released, or g N ₂ O-N or NO _x -N/g N released
Conversion Factor (CF)	=	conversion, by molecular weight ratio, of CH ₄ -C to C (16/12), or CO-C to C (28/12), or N ₂ O-N to N (44/28), or NO _x -N to N (30/14)

Emissions from Burning of Agricultural Residues were calculated using a Tier 2 methodology that is based on IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) and incorporates crop- and country-specific emission factors and variables. The equation varies slightly in form from the one presented in the IPCC (2006) guidelines, but both equations rely on the same underlying variables. The IPCC (2006) equation was developed to be broadly applicable to all types of biomass burning, and, thus, is not specific to agricultural residues. IPCC (2006) default factors are provided only for four crops (wheat, corn, rice, and sugarcane), while this Inventory analyzes emissions from seven crops. A comparison of the methods and factors used in (1) the current Inventory and (2) the default IPCC (2006) approach was undertaken in the 1990 through 2009 Inventory report to determine the magnitude of the difference in overall estimates resulting from the two approaches. The IPCC (2006) approach was not used because crop-specific

¹⁹² In IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997), the equation for C or N released contains the variable 'fraction oxidized in burning.' This variable is equivalent to (burning efficiency × combustion efficiency).

emission factors for N₂O were not available for all crops, therefore the crop specific methodology provided in the IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997) approach was used.

The IPCC (2006) default approach resulted in 12 percent higher emissions of CH₄ and 25 percent higher emissions of N₂O than the estimates in the 1990 through 2009 Inventory. It is reasonable to maintain the current methodology, since the IPCC (2006) defaults are only available for four crops and are worldwide average estimates, while current estimates are based on U.S.-specific, crop-specific, published data.

Crop production data for all crops except rice in Florida and Oklahoma were taken from USDA’s QuickStats service (USDA 2013). Rice production and area data for Florida and Oklahoma, which are not collected by USDA, were estimated separately. Average primary and ratoon rice crop yields for Florida (Schueneman and Deren 2002) were applied to Florida acreages (Schueneman 1999, 2001; Deren 2002; Kirstein 2003, 2004; Cantens 2004, 2005; Gonzalez 2007 through 2013), and rice crop yields for Arkansas (USDA 2013) were applied to Oklahoma acreages¹⁹³ (Lee 2003 through 2006; Anderson 2008 through 2013). The production data for the crop types whose residues are burned are presented in Table 6-25. Crop weight by bushel was obtained from Murphy (1993).

The fraction of crop area burned was calculated using data on area burned by crop type and state¹⁹⁴ from McCarty (2010) for corn, cotton, lentils, rice, soybeans, sugarcane, and wheat.¹⁹⁵ McCarty (2010) used remote sensing data from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) to estimate area burned by crop. State-level area burned data were divided by state-level crop area harvested data to estimate the percent of crop area burned by crop for each state. The average fraction of area burned by crop across all states is shown in Table 6-26. All crop area harvested data were from USDA (2013), except for rice acreage in Florida and Oklahoma, which is not measured by USDA (Schueneman 1999, 2001; Deren 2002; Kirstein 2003, 2004; Cantens 2004, 2005; Gonzalez 2007 through 2013; Lee 2003 through 2006; Anderson 2008 through 2013). Data on crop area burned were only available from McCarty (2010) for the years 2003 through 2007. For other years in the time series, the percent area burned was set equal to the average 5 year percent area burned, based on data availability and inter-annual variability. This average was taken at the crop and state level. Table 6-26 shows these percent area estimates aggregated for the United States as a whole, at the crop level. State-level estimates based on state-level crop area harvested and burned data were also prepared, but are not presented here.

All residue/crop product mass ratios except sugarcane and cotton were obtained from Strehler and Stütze (1987). The datum for sugarcane is from Kinoshita (1988) and that of cotton from Huang et al. (2007). The residue/crop ratio for lentils was assumed to be equal to the average of the values for peas and beans. Residue dry matter fractions for all crops except soybeans, lentils, and cotton were obtained from Turn et al. (1997). Soybean and lentil dry matter fractions were obtained from Strehler and Stütze (1987); the value for lentil residue was assumed to equal the value for bean straw. The cotton dry matter fraction was taken from Huang et al. (2007). The residue C contents and N contents for all crops except soybeans and cotton are from Turn et al. (1997). The residue C content for soybeans is the IPCC default (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). The N content of soybeans is from Barnard and Kristoferson (1985). The C and N contents of lentils were assumed to equal those of soybeans. The C and N contents of cotton are from Lachnicht et al. (2004). These data are listed in Table 6-27. The burning efficiency was assumed to be 93 percent, and the combustion efficiency was assumed to be 88 percent, for all crop types, except sugarcane (EPA 1994). For sugarcane, the burning efficiency was assumed to be 81 percent (Kinoshita 1988) and the combustion efficiency was assumed to be 68 percent (Turn et al. 1997). Emission ratios and conversion factors for all gases (see Table 6-28) were taken from the *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines* (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997).

Table 6-25: Agricultural Crop Production (Gg of Product)

Crop	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
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¹⁹³ Rice production yield data are not available for Oklahoma, so the Arkansas values are used as a proxy.

¹⁹⁴ Alaska and Hawaii were excluded.

¹⁹⁵ McCarty (2009) also examined emissions from burning of Kentucky bluegrass and a general “other crops/fallow” category, but USDA crop area and production data were insufficient to estimate emissions from these crops using the methodology employed in the Inventory. McCarty (2009) estimates that approximately 18 percent of crop residue emissions result from burning of the Kentucky bluegrass and “other” categories.

Corn ^a	201,534	282,263	307,142	332,549	316,165	313,949	273,832
Cotton	3,376	5,201	2,790	2,654	3,942	3,391	3,770
Lentils	40	238	109	265	393	215	240
Rice	7,114	10,132	9,272	9,972	11,027	8,389	9,048
Soybeans	52,416	83,507	80,749	91,417	90,605	84,192	82,055
Sugarcane	25,525	24,137	25,041	27,608	24,821	26,512	29,193
Wheat	74,292	57,243	68,016	60,366	60,062	54,413	61,755

^a Corn for grain (i.e., excludes corn for silage).

Table 6-26: U.S. Average Percent Crop Area Burned by Crop (Percent)

State	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Corn	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cotton	1 %	1 %	1 %	1 %	1 %	1 %	1 %
Lentils	3 %	+	1 %	1 %	+	1 %	1 %
Rice	10 %	6 %	9 %	9 %	8 %	10 %	9 %
Soybeans	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Sugarcane	59 %	26 %	39 %	37 %	38 %	40 %	37 %
Wheat	3 %	2 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %	3 %

+ Less than 0.5 percent

Table 6-27: Key Assumptions for Estimating Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues

Crop	Residue/Crop Ratio	Dry Matter Fraction	C Fraction	N Fraction	Burning Efficiency (Fraction)	Combustion Efficiency (Fraction)
Corn	1.0	0.91	0.448	0.006	0.93	0.88
Cotton	1.6	0.90	0.445	0.012	0.93	0.88
Lentils	2.0	0.85	0.450	0.023	0.93	0.88
Rice	1.4	0.91	0.381	0.007	0.93	0.88
Soybeans	2.1	0.87	0.450	0.023	0.93	0.88
Sugarcane	0.2	0.62	0.424	0.004	0.81	0.68
Wheat	1.3	0.93	0.443	0.006	0.93	0.88

Table 6-28: Greenhouse Gas Emission Ratios and Conversion Factors

Gas	Emission Ratio	Conversion Factor
CH ₄ :C	0.005 ^a	16/12
CO:C	0.060 ^a	28/12
N ₂ O:N	0.007 ^b	44/28
NO _x :N	0.121 ^b	30/14

^a Mass of C compound released (units of C) relative to mass of total C released from burning (units of C).

^b Mass of N compound released (units of N) relative to mass of total N released from burning (units of N).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Due to data and time limitations, uncertainty resulting from the fact that emissions from burning of Kentucky bluegrass and “other” residues are not included in the emissions estimates was not incorporated into the uncertainty analysis. The results of the Tier 2 Monte Carlo uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 6-29. Methane emissions from field burning of agricultural residues in 2012 were estimated to be between 0.15 and 0.36 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 41percent below and 42 percent above the 2012

emission estimate of 0.25 Tg CO₂ Eq.¹⁹⁶ Also at the 95 percent confidence level, N₂O emissions were estimated to be between 0.07 and 0.14 Tg CO₂ Eq., or approximately 30 percent below and 32 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 0.10 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 6-29: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Field Burning of Agricultural Residues (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	CH ₄	0.25	0.15	0.36	-41%	42%
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	N ₂ O	0.10	0.07	0.14	-30%	32%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for field burning of agricultural residues was implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures focused on comparing trends across years, states, and crops to attempt to identify any outliers or inconsistencies. For some crops and years in Florida and Oklahoma, the total area burned as measured by McCarty (2010) was greater than the area estimated for that crop, year, and state by Gonzalez (2004-2008) and Anderson (2007) for Florida and Oklahoma, respectively, leading to a percent area burned estimate of greater than 100 percent. In such cases, it was assumed that the percent crop area burned for that state was 100 percent.

Recalculations Discussion

The current Inventory was updated to incorporate state-level estimates of percentage of crop area burned. This represents an improvement on the previous methodology, which used state-level percentage burned data to generate a national average due to uncertainty analysis constraints. In addition, the crop production data for 2011 and 2012 were updated relative to the previous report using data from USDA (2013). Rice cultivation data for Florida and Oklahoma, which are not reported by USDA, were updated for 2012 through communications with state experts. Overall, these improvements resulted in an average increase in emissions of 14.4 percent from 1990 through 2011. Emissions increased the most for 1996 (31.3 percent), and decreased in 2003 (-2.8 percent), the only year in which emissions decreased. These changes are due almost entirely to the methodology updates and applying percentage of crop area burned at the state level. The changes in crop production values had a negligible impact on emissions.

Planned Improvements

Further investigation will be conducted into inconsistent area burned data from Florida and Oklahoma as mentioned in the QA/QC and verification section, and attempts will be made to revise or further justify the assumption of 100 percent of area burned for those crops and years where the estimated percent area burned exceeded 100 percent. The availability of useable area harvested and other data for bluegrass and the “other crops” category in McCarty (2010) will also be investigated in order to try to incorporate these emissions into the estimate. More crop area burned data are becoming available and will be analyzed for incorporation into the next Inventory report.

¹⁹⁶ This value of 0.25 Tg CO₂ is rounded and reported as 0.3 Tg CO₂ in Table 6-21 and the text discussing Table 6-21. For the uncertainty calculations, the value of 0.25 Tg CO₂ was used to allow for more precise uncertainty ranges.

7. Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry

This chapter provides an assessment of the net greenhouse gas flux resulting from the uses and changes in land types and forests in the United States.¹⁹⁷ The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change 2006 *Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories* (IPCC 2006) recommends reporting fluxes according to changes within and conversions between certain land-use types termed forest land, cropland, grassland, and settlements (as well as wetlands). The greenhouse gas flux from *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* is reported using estimates of changes in forest carbon (C) stocks, non-carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from forest fires, and the application of synthetic fertilizers to forest soils. The greenhouse gas flux from agricultural lands (i.e., cropland and grassland) that is reported in this chapter includes changes in organic C stocks in mineral and organic soils due to land use and management, and emissions of CO₂ due to the application of crushed limestone and dolomite to managed land (i.e., soil liming) and urea fertilization. Fluxes are reported for four agricultural land use/land-use change categories: *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, and *Land Converted to Grassland*. Fluxes resulting from *Settlements Remaining Settlements* include those from urban trees and soil fertilization. Landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps are accounted for separately under *Other*.

The estimates in this chapter, with the exception of CO₂ fluxes from wood products and urban trees, and CO₂ emissions from liming and urea fertilization, are based on activity data collected at multiple-year intervals, which are in the form of forest, land-use, and municipal solid waste surveys. Carbon dioxide fluxes from forest C stocks (except the wood product components) and from agricultural soils (except the liming component) are calculated on an average annual basis from data collected in intervals ranging from 1 to 10 years. The resulting annual averages are applied to years between surveys. Calculations of non-CO₂ emissions from forest fires are based on forest CO₂ flux data. For the landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps source, periodic solid waste survey data were interpolated so that annual storage estimates could be derived. This flux has been applied to the entire time series, and periodic U.S. census data on changes in urban area have been used to develop annual estimates of CO₂ flux.

Land use, land-use change, and forestry activities in 2012 resulted in a net C sequestration of 979.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (267.1 Tg C) (Table 7-1 and Table 7-2). This represents an offset of approximately 15.0 percent of total U.S. CO₂ emissions. Total land use, land-use change, and forestry net C sequestration increased by approximately 17.8 percent between 1990 and 2012.¹⁹⁸ This increase was primarily due to an increase in the rate of net C accumulation in forest C stocks. Net C accumulation in *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements* increased, while net C accumulation in *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, and *Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps* slowed over this period, and emissions from *Land Converted to Cropland* decreased.

¹⁹⁷ The term “flux” is used here to encompass both emissions of greenhouse gases to the atmosphere, and removal of C from the atmosphere. Removal of C from the atmosphere is also referred to as “carbon sequestration.”

¹⁹⁸ Carbon sequestration estimates are net figures. The C stock in a given pool fluctuates due to both gains and losses. When losses exceed gains, the C stock decreases, and the pool acts as a source. When gains exceed losses, the C stock increases, and the pool acts as a sink; also referred to as net C sequestration.

Table 7-1: Net CO₂ Flux from Carbon Stock Changes in Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Sink Category	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land ^a	(704.6)	(927.2)	(871.0)	(849.4)	(855.7)	(867.1)	(866.5)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(51.9)	(29.1)	(29.8)	(29.2)	(27.6)	(27.5)	(26.5)
Land Converted to Cropland	26.9	20.9	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8
Grassland Remaining Grassland	(9.6)	5.6	6.8	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.7
Land Converted to Grassland	(7.3)	(8.3)	(8.7)	(8.7)	(8.6)	(8.6)	(8.5)
Settlements Remaining Settlements ^b	(60.4)	(80.5)	(83.9)	(85.0)	(86.1)	(87.3)	(88.4)
Other (Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps)	(24.2)	(12.0)	(11.2)	(12.9)	(13.6)	(13.5)	(13.0)
Total	(831.1)	(1,030.7)	(981.0)	(961.6)	(968.0)	(980.3)	(979.3)

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Estimates include C stock changes on both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and *Land Converted to Forest Land*.

^b Estimates include C stock changes on both *Settlements Remaining Settlements* and *Land Converted to Settlements*.

Table 7-2: Net CO₂ Flux from Carbon Stock Changes in Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg C)

Sink Category	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land ^a	(192.2)	(252.9)	(237.6)	(231.6)	(233.4)	(236.5)	(236.3)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(14.2)	(7.9)	(8.1)	(8.0)	(7.5)	(7.5)	(7.2)
Land Converted to Cropland	7.3	5.7	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6
Grassland Remaining Grassland	(2.6)	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8
Land Converted to Grassland	(2.0)	(2.3)	(2.4)	(2.4)	(2.4)	(2.3)	(2.3)
Settlements Remaining Settlements ^b	(16.5)	(22.0)	(22.9)	(23.2)	(23.5)	(23.8)	(24.1)
Other (Landfilled Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps)	(6.6)	(3.3)	(3.0)	(3.5)	(3.7)	(3.7)	(3.6)
Total	(226.7)	(281.1)	(267.5)	(262.3)	(264.0)	(267.4)	(267.1)

Note: 1 Tg C = 1 teragram C = 1 million metric tons C. Parentheses indicate net sequestration. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Estimates include C stock changes on both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and *Land Converted to Forest Land*.

^b Estimates include C stock changes on both *Settlements Remaining Settlements* and *Land Converted to Settlements*.

Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry are shown in Table 7-3 and Table 7-4. Liming of agricultural soils and urea fertilization in 2012 resulted in CO₂ emissions of 7.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (7,381 Gg). Lands undergoing peat extraction (i.e., *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*) resulted in CO₂ emissions of 0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (830 Gg), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions of less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. The application of synthetic fertilizers to forest soils in 2012 resulted in direct N₂O emissions of 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1 Gg). Direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer application to forest soils have increased by 455 percent since 1990, but still account for a relatively small portion of overall emissions. Additionally, direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer application to settlement soils in 2012 accounted for 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5 Gg). This represents an increase of 48 percent since 1990. Forest fires in 2012 resulted in methane (CH₄) emissions of 15.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (727 Gg), and in N₂O emissions of 12.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (40 Gg).

Table 7-3: Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source Category	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	8.1	8.9	9.6	8.3	9.6	8.8	8.2
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Liming of Agricultural Soils	4.7	4.3	5.0	3.7	4.8	3.9	3.9
Cropland Remaining Cropland Urea Fertilization	2.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.4
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands: Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
CH₄	2.5	8.1	8.7	5.8	4.7	14.0	15.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Forest Fires	2.5	8.1	8.7	5.8	4.7	14.0	15.3

N₂O	3.1	8.4	9.0	6.5	5.7	13.3	14.3
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land:							
Forest Fires	2.0	6.6	7.1	4.7	3.9	11.4	12.5
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land:							
Forest Soils ^a	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Settlements Remaining Settlements:							
Settlement Soils ^b	1.0	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands:							
Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	13.7	25.5	27.3	20.5	20.0	36.0	37.8

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: These estimates include direct emissions only. Indirect N₂O emissions are reported in the Agriculture chapter. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Estimates include emissions from N fertilizer additions on both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*, and *Land Converted to Forest Land*, but not from land-use conversion.

^b Estimates include emissions from N fertilizer additions on both *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Land Converted to Settlements*, but not from land-use conversion

Table 7-4: Emissions from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Gg)

Source Category	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO₂	8,117	8,933	9,630	8,313	9,573	8,783	8,211
Cropland Remaining Cropland: Liming of Agricultural Soils	4,667	4,349	5,025	3,669	4,784	3,871	3,939
Cropland Remaining Cropland Urea Fertilization	2,417	3,504	3,613	3,555	3,780	3,993	3,441
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands:							
Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	1,033	1,079	992	1,089	1,010	919	830
CH₄	119	386	416	275	225	664	727
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land:							
Forest Fires	119	386	416	275	225	664	727
N₂O	10	27	29	21	18	43	46
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land:							
Forest Fires	7	21	23	15	12	37	40
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land:							
Forest Soils ^a	+	1	1	1	1	1	1
Settlements Remaining Settlements:							
Settlement Soils ^b	3	5	5	5	5	5	5
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands:							
Peatlands Remaining Peatlands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Emissions are less than 0.5 Gg

Note: These estimates include direct emissions only. Indirect N₂O emissions are reported in the Agriculture chapter. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

^a Estimates include emissions from N fertilizer additions on both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*, and *Land Converted to Forest Land*, but not from land-use conversion.

^b Estimates include emissions from N fertilizer additions on both *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Land Converted to Settlements*, but not from land-use conversion.

Box 7-1: Methodological Approach for Estimating and Reporting U.S. Emissions and Sinks

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emissions inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in this report are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).¹⁹⁹ Additionally, the calculated emissions and sinks in a given year for the United States are presented in a

¹⁹⁹ See <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/index.html>>.

common manner in line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for the reporting of inventories under this international agreement.²⁰⁰ The use of consistent methods to calculate emissions and sinks by all nations providing their inventories to the UNFCCC ensures that these reports are comparable. In this regard, U.S. emissions and sinks reported in this Inventory report are comparable to emissions and sinks reported by other countries. Emissions and sinks provided in this Inventory do not preclude alternative examinations, but rather this Inventory report presents emissions and sinks in a common format consistent with how countries are to report inventories under the UNFCCC. The report itself follows this standardized format, and provides an explanation of the IPCC methods used to calculate emissions and sinks, and the manner in which those calculations are conducted.

7.1 Representation of the United States Land Base

A national land-use categorization system that is consistent and complete, both temporally and spatially, is needed in order to assess land use and land-use change status and the associated greenhouse gas fluxes over the inventory time series. This system should be consistent with IPCC (2006), such that all countries reporting on national greenhouse gas fluxes to the UNFCCC should (1) describe the methods and definitions used to determine areas of managed and unmanaged lands in the country, (2) describe and apply a consistent set of definitions for land-use categories over the entire national land base and time series (i.e., such that increases in the land areas within particular land-use categories are balanced by decreases in the land areas of other categories unless the national land base is changing), and (3) account for greenhouse gas fluxes on all managed lands. The IPCC (2006, Vol. IV, Chapter 1) consider all anthropogenic GHG emissions and removals associated with land use and management to occur on managed land, and all emissions and removals on managed land should be reported based on this guidance (See IPCC 2010 for further discussion). Consequently, managed land serves as a proxy for anthropogenic emissions and removals. This proxy is intended to provide a practical framework for conducting an inventory, even though some of the GHG emissions and removals on managed land are influenced by natural processes that may or may not be interacting with the anthropogenic drivers. Guidelines for factoring out natural emissions and removals may be developed in the future, but currently the managed land proxy is considered the most practical approach for conducting an inventory in this sector (IPCC 2010). The implementation of such a system helps to ensure that estimates of greenhouse gas fluxes are as accurate as possible, and does allow for potentially subjective decisions in regards to subdividing natural and anthropogenic driven emissions. This section of the Inventory has been developed in order to comply with this guidance.

Three databases are used to track land management in the United States and are used as the basis to classify United States land area into the thirty-six IPCC land-use and land-use change categories (Table 7-6) (IPCC 2006). The primary databases are the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) National Resources Inventory (NRI)²⁰¹ and the USDA Forest Service (USFS) Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA)²⁰² Database. The Multi-Resolution Land Characteristics Consortium (MRLC) National Land Cover Dataset (NLCD)²⁰³ is also used to identify land uses in regions that were not included in the NRI or FIA.

The total land area included in the United States Inventory is 936 million hectares across the 50 states.²⁰⁴ Approximately 867 million hectares of this land base is considered managed, which has not changed over the time series of the Inventory (Table 7-6). In 2012, the United States had a total of 304 million hectares of managed Forest

²⁰⁰ See <http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/national_inventories_submissions/items/8108.php>.

²⁰¹ NRI data is available at <<http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/wps/portal/nrcs/site/national/home>>.

²⁰² FIA data is available at <<http://www.fia.fs.fed.us/tools-data/default.asp>>.

²⁰³ NLCD data is available at <http://www.mrlc.gov/> and MRLC is a consortium of several US government agencies.

²⁰⁴ The current land representation does not include areas from United States territories, but there are planned improvements to include these regions in future reports.

Land (3.5 percent increase since 1990), 159 million hectares of Cropland (6.6 percent decrease since 1990), 292 million hectares of managed Grassland (3.1 percent decrease since 1990), 43 million hectares of managed Wetlands (3.9 percent decrease since 1990), 51 million hectares of Settlements (31 percent increase since 1990), and 19 million hectares of managed Other Land (Table 7-6). Wetlands are not differentiated between managed and unmanaged and are reported solely as managed. Some wetlands would be considered unmanaged, and a future planned improvement will include a differentiation between managed and unmanaged wetlands using guidance in the 2013 Supplement to the *2006 Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Wetlands*. In addition, C stock changes are not currently estimated for the entire land base, which leads to discrepancies between the managed land area data presented here and in the subsequent sections of the NIR (e.g., Grassland Remaining Grassland).^{205,206} Planned improvements are under development to account for C stock changes on all managed land (e.g., federal grasslands) and ensure consistency between the total area of managed land in the land representation description and the remainder of the NIR.

Dominant land uses vary by region, largely due to climate patterns, soil types, geology, proximity to coastal regions, and historical settlement patterns, although all land-uses occur within each of the fifty states (Table 7-1). Forest Land tends to be more common in the eastern states, mountainous regions of the western United States, and Alaska. Cropland is concentrated in the mid-continent region of the United States, and Grassland is more common in the western United States. Wetlands are fairly ubiquitous throughout the United States, though they are more common in the upper Midwest and eastern portions of the country. Settlements are more concentrated along the coastal margins and in the eastern states.

Table 7-5: Managed and Unmanaged Land Area by Land Use Categories for all 50 States (thousands of hectares)

Land Use Categories	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Managed Lands	866,933	866,932	866,932	866,932	866,932	866,932	866,932
Forest	293,647	300,365	302,045	302,535	303,026	303,517	304,007
Croplands	170,307	159,950	159,096	159,088	159,081	159,074	159,067
Grasslands	301,125	294,284	292,881	292,575	292,266	291,958	291,649
Settlements	38,670	49,658	50,610	50,603	50,597	50,592	50,586
Wetlands	44,396	43,828	43,303	43,146	42,989	42,832	42,675
Other	18,789	18,847	18,997	18,985	18,972	18,960	18,948
Unmanaged Lands	69,498	69,499	69,499	69,499	69,499	69,499	69,499
Forest	14,565	14,565	14,565	14,565	14,565	14,565	14,565
Croplands	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Grasslands	39,675	39,676	39,676	39,676	39,676	39,676	39,676
Settlements	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wetlands	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	15,258	15,259	15,259	15,259	15,259	15,259	15,259
Total Land Areas	936,431	936,431	936,431	936,431	936,431	936,431	936,431
Forest	308,212	314,930	316,610	317,100	317,591	318,082	318,572
Croplands	170,307	159,950	159,096	159,088	159,081	159,074	159,067
Grasslands	340,800	333,959	332,556	332,250	331,942	331,633	331,325
Settlements	38,670	49,658	50,610	50,603	50,597	50,592	50,586
Wetlands	44,396	43,828	43,303	43,146	42,989	42,832	42,675
Other	34,047	34,106	34,256	34,243	34,231	34,219	34,207

²⁰⁵ C stock changes are not estimated for approximately 75 million hectares of Grassland Remaining Grassland. See specific land-use sections for further discussion on gaps in the inventory of C stock changes, and discussion about planned improvements to address the gaps in the near future

²⁰⁶ These “managed area” discrepancies also occur in the Common Reporting Format (CRF) tables submitted to the UNFCCC.

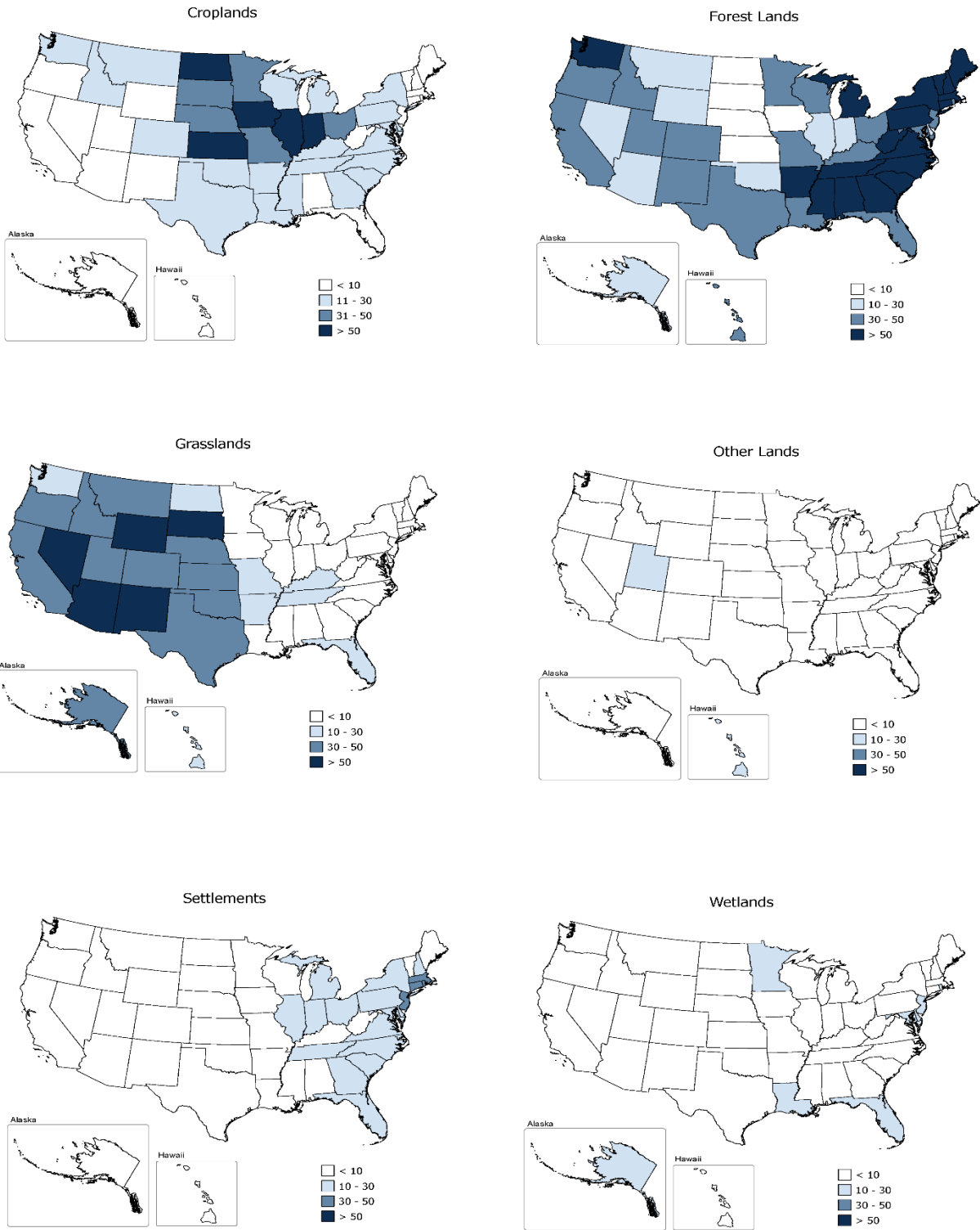
Table 7-6: Land Use and Land-Use Change for the United States Managed Land Base for all 50 States (thousands of hectares)

Land Use & Land-Use Change Categories ^a	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total Forest Land	293,647	300,365	302,045	302,535	303,026	303,517	304,007
FF	288,535	288,061	290,557	291,041	291,525	292,010	292,495
CF	1,118	2,651	2,444	2,445	2,445	2,445	2,446
GF	3,425	7,823	7,301	7,302	7,304	7,305	7,306
WF	66	256	263	264	265	265	266
SF	104	372	387	388	388	389	390
OF	398	1,201	1,094	1,097	1,099	1,101	1,104
Total Cropland	170,307	159,950	159,096	159,088	159,081	159,074	159,067
CC	154,840	143,072	143,874	143,867	143,861	143,855	143,848
FC	1,118	675	568	567	567	567	566
GC	13,583	15,067	13,580	13,580	13,580	13,580	13,580
WC	156	193	174	174	174	174	174
SC	431	688	669	669	669	669	669
OC	180	253	231	231	231	231	231
Total Grassland	301,125	294,284	292,881	292,575	292,266	291,958	291,649
GG	290,917	275,170	275,172	274,922	274,670	274,418	274,166
FG	1,611	2,990	2,723	2,721	2,719	2,716	2,714
CG	7,898	14,598	13,558	13,505	13,451	13,397	13,343
WG	238	408	329	328	328	328	328
SG	111	274	267	267	267	267	267
OG	349	844	832	832	831	831	831
Total Wetlands	44,396	43,828	43,303	43,146	42,989	42,832	42,675
WW	43,747	42,320	41,868	41,714	41,559	41,405	41,250
FW	140	393	380	379	377	375	374
CW	132	366	345	344	344	344	343
GW	343	696	662	661	661	661	661
SW	0	10	10	10	10	10	10
OW	33	43	39	38	38	37	37
Total Settlements	38,670	49,658	50,610	50,603	50,597	50,592	50,586
SS	34,129	35,264	36,335	36,329	36,323	36,318	36,312
FS	1,787	6,111	6,089	6,089	6,089	6,089	6,089
CS	1,343	3,625	3,518	3,518	3,518	3,518	3,518
GS	1,353	4,430	4,436	4,436	4,436	4,436	4,436
WS	3	31	30	30	30	30	30
OS	55	198	201	201	201	201	201
Total Other Land	18,789	18,847	18,997	18,985	18,972	18,960	18,948
OO	17,756	16,628	16,707	16,695	16,683	16,671	16,659
FO	182	538	569	569	569	569	569
CO	331	645	703	703	703	703	703
GO	454	896	895	895	895	894	894
WO	63	119	102	102	102	102	102
SO	2	21	20	20	20	20	20
Grand Total	866,933	866,932	866,932	866,932	866,932	866,932	866,932

^aThe abbreviations are “F” for Forest Land, “C” for Cropland, “G” for Grassland, “W” for Wetlands, “S” for Settlements, and “O” for Other Lands. Lands remaining in the same land use category are identified with the land use abbreviation given twice (e.g., “FF” is Forest Land Remaining Forest Land), and land use change categories are identified with the previous land use abbreviation followed by the new land use abbreviation (e.g., “CF” is Cropland Converted to Forest Land).

Notes: All land areas reported in this table are considered managed. A planned improvement is underway to deal with an exception for wetlands, which based on the definitions for the current United States Land Representation Assessment includes both managed and unmanaged lands. United States Territories have not been classified into land uses and are not included in the United States Land Representation Assessment. See Planned Improvements for discussion on plans to include territories in future Inventories. In addition, C stock changes are not currently estimated for the entire land base, which leads to discrepancies between the managed land area data presented here and in the subsequent sections of the NIR.

Figure 7-1. Percent of Total Land Area for each State in the General Land-Use Categories for 2012.



Methodology

IPCC Approaches for Representing Land Areas

IPCC (2006) describes three approaches for representing land areas. Approach 1 provides data on the total area for each individual land-use category, but does not provide detailed information on changes of area between categories and is not spatially explicit other than at the national or regional level. With Approach 1, total net conversions between categories can be detected, but not the individual changes (i.e., additions and/or losses) between the land-use categories that led to those net changes. Approach 2 introduces tracking of individual land-use changes between the categories (e.g., Forest Land to Cropland, Cropland to Forest Land, Grassland to Cropland), using surveys or other forms of data that do not provide location data on specific parcels of land. Approach 3 extends Approach 2 by providing location data on specific parcels of land, such as maps, along with the land-use history. The three approaches are not presented as hierarchical tiers and are not mutually exclusive.

According to IPCC (2006), the approach or mix of approaches selected by an inventory agency should reflect calculation needs and national circumstances. For this analysis, the NRI, FIA, and the NLCD have been combined to provide a complete representation of land use for managed lands. These data sources are described in more detail later in this section. NRI and FIA are Approach 2 data sources that do not provide spatially-explicit representations of land use and land use conversions, even though land use and land use conversions are tracked explicitly at the survey locations. NRI and FIA data can only be aggregated and used to develop a land use conversion matrix for a political or ecologically-defined region. NLCD is a spatially-explicit time series of land-use data, and therefore Approach 3. Lands are treated as remaining in the same category (e.g., Cropland Remaining Cropland) if a land-use change has not occurred in the last 20 years. Otherwise, the land is classified in a land-use change category based on the current use and most recent use before conversion to the current use (e.g., Cropland Converted to Forest Land).

Definitions of Land Use in the United States

Managed and Unmanaged Land

The United States definitions of managed and unmanaged lands are similar to the basic IPCC (2006) definition of managed land, but with some additional elaboration to reflect national circumstances. Based on the following definitions, most lands in the United States are classified as managed:

- *Managed Land*: Land is considered managed if direct human intervention has influenced its condition. Direct intervention occurs mostly in areas accessible to human activity and includes altering or maintaining the condition of the land to produce commercial or non-commercial products or services; to serve as transportation corridors or locations for buildings, landfills, or other developed areas for commercial or non-commercial purposes; to extract resources or facilitate acquisition of resources; or to provide social functions for personal, community or societal objectives where these areas are readily accessible to society.²⁰⁷
- *Unmanaged Land*: All other land is considered unmanaged. Unmanaged land is largely comprised of areas inaccessible to society due to the remoteness of the locations. Though these lands may be influenced indirectly by human actions such as atmospheric deposition of chemical species produced in industry or CO₂ fertilization, they are not influenced by a direct human intervention.²⁰⁸

²⁰⁷ Wetlands are an exception to this general definition, because these lands, as specified by IPCC (2006), are only considered managed if they are created through human activity, such as dam construction, or the water level is artificially altered by human activity. Distinguishing between managed and unmanaged wetlands is difficult due to limited data availability. Wetlands are not characterized by use within the NRI. Therefore, unless wetlands are managed for cropland or grassland, it is not possible to know if they are artificially created or if the water table is managed based on the use of NRI data. As a result, all wetlands are reported as managed. See the Planned Improvements section of the Inventory for work being done to refine the Wetland area estimates.

²⁰⁸ There are some areas, such as Forest Land and Grassland in Alaska that are classified as unmanaged land due to the remoteness of their location.

In addition, land that is previously managed remains in the managed land base for 20 years before re-classifying the land as unmanaged in order to account for legacy effects of management on C stocks.

Land-Use Categories

As with the definition of managed lands, IPCC (2006) provides general non-prescriptive definitions for the six main land-use categories: Forest Land, Cropland, Grassland, Wetlands, Settlements and Other Land. In order to reflect national circumstances, country-specific definitions have been developed, based predominantly on criteria used in the land-use surveys for the United States. Specifically, the definition of Forest Land is based on the FIA definition of forest,²⁰⁹ while definitions of Cropland, Grassland, and Settlements are based on the NRI.²¹⁰ The definitions for Other Land and Wetlands are based on the IPCC (2006) definitions for these categories.

- *Forest Land*: A land-use category that includes areas at least 36.6 m wide and 0.4 ha in size with at least 10 percent cover (or equivalent stocking) by live trees of any size, including land that formerly had such tree cover and that will be naturally or artificially regenerated. Forest land includes transition zones, such as areas between forest and non-forest lands that have at least 10 percent cover (or equivalent stocking) with live trees and forest areas adjacent to urban and built-up lands. Roadside, streamside, and shelterbelt strips of trees must have a crown width of at least 36.6 m and continuous length of at least 110.6 m to qualify as forest land. Unimproved roads and trails, streams, and clearings in forest areas are classified as forest if they are less than 36.6 m wide or 0.4 ha in size; otherwise they are excluded from Forest Land and classified as Settlements. Some tree-covered areas are not considered forest land, such as fruit orchards in agricultural production settings that are considered part of Croplands, or tree-covered areas in urban settings, such as city parks that are classified as Settlements (Smith et al. 2009).
- *Cropland*: A land-use category that includes areas used for the production of adapted crops for harvest; this category includes both cultivated and non-cultivated lands.²¹¹ Cultivated crops include row crops or close-grown crops and also hay or pasture in rotation with cultivated crops. Non-cultivated cropland includes continuous hay, perennial crops (e.g., orchards) and horticultural cropland. Cropland also includes land with alley cropping and windbreaks,²¹² as well as lands in temporary fallow or enrolled in conservation reserve programs (i.e., set-asides²¹³), as long as these areas do not meet the Forest Land criteria. Roads through Cropland, including interstate highways, state highways, other paved roads, gravel roads, dirt roads, and railroads are excluded from Cropland area estimates and are, instead, classified as Settlements.
- *Grassland*: A land-use category on which the plant cover is composed principally of grasses, grass-like plants (i.e., sedges and rushes), forbs, or shrubs suitable for grazing and browsing, and includes both pastures and native rangelands.²¹⁴ This includes areas where practices such as clearing, burning, chaining, and/or chemicals are applied to maintain the grass vegetation. Savannas, some wetlands and deserts, in addition to tundra are considered Grassland.²¹⁵ Woody plant communities of low forbs and shrubs, such as mesquite, chaparral, mountain shrub, and pinyon-juniper, are also classified as Grassland if they do not meet the criteria for Forest Land. Grassland includes land managed with agroforestry practices such as silvipasture and windbreaks, assuming the stand or woodlot does not meet the criteria for Forest Land.

²⁰⁹ See <http://socrates.lv-hrc.nevada.edu/fia/ab/issues/pending/glossary/Glossary_5_30_06.pdf>.

²¹⁰ See <<http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/wps/portal/nrcs/site/national/home>>.

²¹¹ A minor portion of Cropland occurs on federal lands, and is not currently included in the C stock change inventory. A planned improvement is underway to include these areas in future C inventories.

²¹² Currently, there is no data source to account for biomass C stock change associated with woody plant growth and losses in alley cropping systems and windbreaks in cropping systems, although these areas are included in the cropland land base.

²¹³ A set-aside is cropland that has been taken out of active cropping and converted to some type of vegetative cover, including, for example, native grasses or trees.

²¹⁴ Grasslands on federal lands are included in the managed land base, but C stock changes are not estimated on these lands. Federal grassland areas have been assumed to have negligible changes in C due to limited land use and management change, but planned improvements are underway to further investigate this issue and include these areas in future C inventories.

²¹⁵ IPCC (2006) guidelines do not include provisions to separate desert and tundra as land categories.

Roads through Grassland, including interstate highways, state highways, other paved roads, gravel roads, dirt roads, and railroads are excluded from Grassland and are, instead, classified as Settlements.

- *Wetlands*: A land-use category that includes land covered or saturated by water for all or part of the year, in addition to the areas of lakes, reservoirs and rivers. Managed Wetlands are those where the water level is artificially changed, or were created by human activity. Certain areas that fall under the managed Wetlands definition are included in other land uses based on the IPCC guidance, including Cropland (drained wetlands for crop production and also systems that are flooded for most or just part of the year, such as rice and cranberry production), Grassland (drained wetlands dominated by grass cover), and Forest Land (including drained or undrained forested wetlands).
- *Settlements*: A land-use category representing developed areas consisting of units of 0.25 acres (0.1 ha) or more that includes residential, industrial, commercial, and institutional land; construction sites; public administrative sites; railroad yards; cemeteries; airports; golf courses; sanitary landfills; sewage treatment plants; water control structures and spillways; parks within urban and built-up areas; and highways, railroads, and other transportation facilities. Also included are tracts of less than 10 acres (4.05 ha) that may meet the definitions for Forest Land, Cropland, Grassland, or Other Land but are completely surrounded by urban or built-up land, and so are included in the settlement category. Rural transportation corridors located within other land uses (e.g., Forest Land, Cropland, and Grassland) are also included in Settlements.
- *Other Land*: A land-use category that includes bare soil, rock, ice, and all land areas that do not fall into any of the other five land-use categories, which allows the total of identified land areas to match the managed land base. Following the guidance provided by the IPCC (2006), C stock changes are not estimated for Other Lands because these areas are largely devoid of biomass, litter and soil C pools.

Land-Use Data Sources: Description and Application to United States Land Area Classification

United States Land-Use Data Sources

The three main sources for land use data in the United States are the NRI, FIA, and the NLCD (Table 7-7). These data sources are combined to account for land use in all 50 states. FIA and NRI data are used when available for an area because the surveys contain additional information on management, site conditions, crop types, biometric measurements and other data from which to estimate C stock changes on those lands. If NRI and FIA data are not available for an area, however, then the NLCD product is used to represent the land use.

Table 7-7: Data sources used to determine land use and land area for the Conterminous United States, Hawaii and Alaska

	NRI	FIA	NLCD
Forests			
Conterminous United States			
	<i>Non-Federal</i>	•	
	<i>Federal</i>	•	
Hawaii			
	<i>Non-Federal</i>	•	
	<i>Federal</i>		•
Alaska			
	<i>Non-Federal</i>		•
	<i>Federal</i>		•
Croplands, Grasslands, Other Lands, Settlements, and Wetlands			
Conterminous United States			
	<i>Non-Federal</i>	•	

	<i>Federal</i>		•
Hawaii			
	<i>Non-Federal</i>	•	
	<i>Federal</i>		•
Alaska			
	<i>Non-Federal</i>		•
	<i>Federal</i>		•

National Resources Inventory

For the Inventory, the NRI is the official source of data on all land uses on non-federal lands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii (except forest land), and is also used as the resource to determine the total land base for the conterminous United States and Hawaii. The NRI is a statistically-based survey conducted by the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service and is designed to assess soil, water, and related environmental resources on non-federal lands. The NRI has a stratified multi-stage sampling design, where primary sample units are stratified on the basis of county and township boundaries defined by the United States Public Land Survey (Nusser and Goebel 1997). Within a primary sample unit (typically a 160-acre [64.75 ha] square quarter-section), three sample points are selected according to a restricted randomization procedure. Each point in the survey is assigned an area weight (expansion factor) based on other known areas and land-use information (Nusser and Goebel 1997). The NRI survey utilizes data derived from remote sensing imagery and site visits in order to provide detailed information on land use and management, particularly for croplands and grasslands, and is used as the basis to account for C stock changes in agricultural lands (except federal Grasslands). The NRI survey was conducted every 5 years between 1982 and 1997, but shifted to annualized data collection in 1998. The land use between 5 year periods from 1982 and 1997 are assumed to be the same for a five year time period if the land use is the same at the beginning and end of the five year period (Note: most of the data has the same land use at the beginning and end of the 5 year periods). If the land use had changed during a five year period, then the change is assigned at random to one of the five years. For crop histories, years with missing data are estimated based on the sequence of crops grown during years preceding and succeeding a missing year in the NRI history. This gap-filling approach allows for development of a full time series of land use data for non-federal lands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii. This Inventory incorporates data through 2007 from the NRI.

Forest Inventory and Assessment

The FIA program, conducted by the USFS, is another statistically-based survey for the conterminous United States, and the official source of data on Forest Land area and management data for the Inventory in this region of the country. FIA engages in a hierarchical system of sampling, with sampling categorized as Phases 1 through 3, in which sample points for phases are subsets of the previous phase. Phase 1 refers to collection of remotely-sensed data (either aerial photographs or satellite imagery) primarily to classify land into forest or non-forest and to identify landscape patterns like fragmentation and urbanization. Phase 2 is the collection of field data on a network of ground plots that enable classification and summarization of area, tree, and other attributes associated with forest land uses. Phase 3 plots are a subset of Phase 2 plots where data on indicators of forest health are measured. Data from all three phases are also used to estimate C stock changes for forest land. Historically, FIA inventory surveys have been conducted periodically, with all plots in a state being measured at a frequency of every 5 to 14 years. A new national plot design and annual sampling design was introduced by FIA about ten years ago. Most states, though, have only recently been brought into this system. Annualized sampling means that a portion of plots throughout each state is sampled each year, with the goal of measuring all plots once every 5 years. See Annex 3.13 to see the specific survey data available by state. The most recent year of available data varies state by state (range of most recent data is from 2002 through 2012).

National Land Cover Dataset

Though NRI provides land-area data for both federal and non-federal lands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii, it only includes land-use data on non-federal lands, and FIA only records data for forest land.²¹⁶ Consequently, major gaps exist when the datasets are combined, such as federal grassland operated by the Bureau of Land Management (BLM), USDA, and National Park Service, as well as Alaska.²¹⁷ The NLCD is used as a supplementary database to account for land use on federal lands that are not included in the NRI and FIA databases. The NLCD land-cover classification scheme, available for 1992, 2001, and 2006, has been applied over the conterminous United States (Homer et al. 2007), and also for Alaska and Hawaii in 2001. For the conterminous United States, the NLCD Land Cover Change Products for 2001 and 2006 were used in order to represent both land use and land-use change for federal lands (Fry et al. 2011, Homer et al. 2007). The NLCD products are based primarily on Landsat Thematic Mapper imagery. The NLCD contains 21 categories of land-cover information, which have been aggregated into the IPCC land-use categories, and the data are available at a spatial resolution of 30 meters. The federal land portion of the NLCD was extracted from the dataset using the federal land area boundary map from the National Atlas (U.S. Department of Interior 2005). This map represents federal land boundaries in 2005, so as part of the analysis, the federal land area was adjusted annually based on the NRI federal land area estimates (i.e., land is periodically transferred between federal and non-federal ownership). Consequently, the portion of the land base categorized with NLCD data varied from year to year, corresponding to an increase or decrease in the federal land base. The NLCD is strictly a source of land-cover information, however, and does not provide the necessary site conditions, crop types, and management information from which to estimate C stock changes on those lands.

Another step in the analysis is to address gaps as well as overlaps in the representation of the United States land base between the Agricultural Carbon Stock inventory (Cropland Remaining Cropland, Land Converted to Cropland, Grassland Remaining Grassland, Land Converted to Grassland) and Forest Land Carbon Stock inventory (Forest Land Remaining Forest Land and Land Converted to Forest Land), which are based on the NRI and FIA databases, respectively. NRI and FIA have different criteria for classifying forest land and sampling designs, leading to discrepancies in the resulting estimates of Forest Land area on non-federal land in the conterminous United States. Similarly, there are discrepancies between the NLCD and FIA data for defining and classifying Forest Land on federal lands. In addition, dependence exists between the Forest Land area and the amount of land designated as other land uses in both the NRI and the NLCD, such as the amount of Grassland, Cropland, and Wetlands, relative to the Forest Land area. This results in inconsistencies among the three databases for estimated Forest Land area, as well as for the area estimates for other land-use categories. FIA is the main database for forest statistics, and consequently, the NRI and NLCD were adjusted to achieve consistency with FIA estimates of Forest Land in the conterminous United States. The adjustments were made at a state-scale, and it was assumed that the majority of the discrepancy in forest area was associated with an under- or over-prediction of Grassland and Wetland area in the NRI and NLCD due to differences in Forest Land definitions. Specifically, the Forest Land area for a given state according to the NRI and NLCD was adjusted to match the FIA estimates of Forest Land for non-federal and federal land in *Forest Lands Remaining Forest Lands*, respectively. In a second step, corresponding increases or decreases were made in the area estimates of Grassland and Wetland from the NRI and NLCD, *Grasslands Remaining Grasslands* and *Wetlands Remaining Wetlands*, in order to balance the change in forest area, and therefore not change the overall amount of managed land within an individual state. The adjustments were based on the proportion of land within each of these land-use categories at the state level. (i.e., a higher proportion of Grassland led to a larger adjustment in Grassland area).

As part of Quality Assurance /Quality Control (QA/QC), the land base derived from the NRI, FIA and NLCD was compared to the Topologically Integrated Geographic Encoding and Referencing (TIGER) survey (U.S. Census Bureau 2010). The U.S. Census Bureau gathers data on the United States population and economy, and has a database of land areas for the country. The land area estimates from the U.S. Census Bureau differ from those provided by the land-use surveys used in the Inventory because of discrepancies in the reporting approach for the census and the methods used in the NRI, FIA, and NLCD. The area estimates of land-use categories, based on NRI, FIA, and NLCD, are derived from remote sensing data instead of the land survey approach used by the U.S. Census

²¹⁶ FIA does collect some data on non-forest land use, but these are held in regional databases versus the national database. The status of these data is being investigated.

²¹⁷ The FIA and NRI survey programs also do not include United States Territories with the exception of non-federal lands in Puerto Rico, which are included in the NRI survey. Furthermore, NLCD does not include coverage for all United States Territories.

Survey. More importantly, the U.S. Census Survey does not provide a time series of land-use change data or land management information. Consequently, the U.S. Census Survey was not adopted as the official land area estimate for the Inventory. Rather, the NRI, FIA and NLCD datasets were adopted because this database provides full coverage of land area and land use for the conterminous United States, Alaska and Hawaii, in addition to management and other data relevant for the inventory. Regardless, the total difference between the U.S. Census Survey and the combined NRI, FIA and NLCD data is about 22 million hectares for the total United States land base of about 936 million hectares currently included in the Inventory, or a 2.4 percent difference. Much of this difference is associated with open waters in coastal regions and the Great Lakes, which is included in the Census.

Managed Land Designation

Lands are designated as managed in the United States based on the definitions provided earlier in this section. In order to apply the definitions in an analysis of managed land, the following criteria are used:

- All croplands and settlements are designated as managed so only grassland, forest land or other lands may be designated as unmanaged land;²¹⁸
- All forest lands with active fire protection are considered managed;
- All grasslands are considered managed at a county scale if there are livestock in the county;²¹⁹
- Other areas are considered managed if accessible based on the proximity to roads and other transportation corridors, and/or infrastructure; and
- Lands that were previously managed but subsequently classified as unmanaged remain in the managed land base for 20 years following the conversion to account for legacy effects of management on C stocks.

These criteria will be expanded in the future as other data sources become available, such as national datasets on mining and resource extraction.

The analysis of managed lands is conducted using a geographic information system. Lands that are used for crop production or settlements are determined from the NLCD (Fry et al. 2011, Homer et al. 2007). Lands with active fire management are determined from maps of federal and state management plans from the National Atlas (U.S. Department of Interior 2005) and Alaska Interagency Fire Management Council (1998). It is noteworthy that all forest lands in the conterminous United States have active fire protection, and are therefore designated as managed regardless of accessibility or other criteria. The designation of grasslands as managed is determined based on USDA-NASS livestock population data at the county scale (U.S. Department of Agriculture 2011). Accessibility is evaluated based on a 10km buffer surrounding road and train transportation networks using the ESRI Data and Maps product (ESRI 2008), and a 10km buffer surrounding settlements using NLCD. The resulting managed land area is overlaid on the NLCD to estimate the area of managed land by land use for both federal and non-federal lands. The remaining land represents the unmanaged land base.

Approach for Combining Data Sources

The managed land base in the United States has been classified into the thirty-six IPCC land-use categories using definitions developed to meet national circumstances, while adhering to IPCC (2006).²²⁰ In practice, the land was initially classified into a variety of land-use categories within the NRI, FIA and NLCD datasets, and then aggregated into the thirty-six broad land use and land-use-change categories identified in IPCC (2006). All three datasets provide information on forest land areas in the conterminous United States, but the area data from FIA serve as the official dataset for estimating forest land use areas in the conterminous United States. Therefore, the NRI and NLCD data are modified at the state scale to match the FIA forest land areas, and any change is reflected in an

²¹⁸ A planned improvement is underway to deal with an exception for wetlands which includes both managed and unmanaged lands based on the definitions for the current United States Land Representation Assessment.

²¹⁹ Assuming all grasslands are grazed in a county with livestock is a conservation assumption about human impacts on grasslands. Currently, detailed information on grazing at sub-county scales is not available for the United States to make a finer delineation of managed land.

²²⁰ Definitions are provided in the previous section.

increase or decrease in grassland and wetland area (See section United States Land Use Data Sources for more information). The modified NRI data are then aggregated to provide the land use and land use change data for non-federal lands in the conterminous United States, and the modified NLCD data are aggregated to provide the land use and land use change data for federal lands. Data for all land uses in Hawaii are based on NRI for non-federal lands and on NLCD for federal lands. Land use data in Alaska are based solely on the NLCD data (Table 7-7). The result is land use and land use change data for the conterminous United States, Hawaii, and Alaska.²²¹

A summary of the details on the approach used to combine data sources for each land use are described below.

- *Forest Land*: Both non-federal and federal forest lands in both the continental United States and coastal Alaska are covered by FIA. FIA is used as the basis for both Forest Land area data as well as to estimate C stocks and fluxes on Forest Land. Interior Alaska is not currently surveyed by FIA so forest land in Alaska is evaluated with 2001 NLCD. NRI is being used in the current report to provide Forest Land areas on non-federal lands in Hawaii, but FIA data will be collected in Hawaii in the future.
- *Cropland*: Cropland is classified using the NRI, which covers all non-federal lands within 49 states (excluding Alaska), including state and local government-owned land as well as tribal lands. NRI is used as the basis for both Cropland area data as well as to estimate C stocks and fluxes on Cropland. NLCD 2001 is used to determine Cropland area in Alaska.
- *Grassland*: Grassland on non-federal lands is classified using the NRI within 49 states (excluding Alaska), including state and local government-owned land as well as tribal lands. NRI is used as the basis for both Grassland area data as well as to estimate C stocks and fluxes on Grassland. Grassland on federal Bureau of Land Management lands, Department of Defense lands, National Parks and within USFS lands are covered by the NLCD. NLCD is used to estimate the areas of federal and non-federal grasslands in Alaska.
- *Wetlands*: NRI captures wetlands on non-federal lands within 49 states (excluding Alaska), while federal wetlands and wetlands in Alaska are covered by the NLCD. This currently includes both managed and unmanaged wetlands as no database has yet been applied to make this distinction. See Planned Improvements for details.
- *Settlements*: The NRI captures non-federal settlement area in 49 states (excluding Alaska). If areas of Forest Land or Grassland under 10 acres (4.05 ha) are contained within settlements or urban areas, they are classified as Settlements (urban) in the NRI database. If these parcels exceed the 10 acre (4.05 ha) threshold and are Grassland, they will be classified as such by NRI. Regardless of size, a forested area is classified as non-forest by FIA if it is located within an urban area. Settlements on federal lands and in Alaska are covered by NLCD.
- *Other Land*: Any land not falling into the other five land categories and, therefore, categorized as Other Land is classified using the NRI for non-federal areas in the 49 states (excluding Alaska) and NLCD for the federal lands and Alaska.

Some lands can be classified into one or more categories due to multiple uses that meet the criteria of more than one definition. However, a ranking has been developed for assignment priority in these cases. The ranking process is from highest to lowest priority, in the following manner:

Settlements > Cropland > Forest Land > Grassland > Wetlands > Other Land

Settlements are given the highest assignment priority because they are extremely heterogeneous with a mosaic of patches that include buildings, infrastructure and travel corridors, but also open grass areas, forest patches, riparian areas, and gardens. The latter examples could be classified as Grassland, Forest Land, Wetlands, and Cropland, respectively, but when located in close proximity to settlement areas they tend to be managed in a unique manner compared to non-settlement areas. Consequently, these areas are assigned to the Settlements land-use category. Cropland is given the second assignment priority, because cropping practices tend to dominate management activities on areas used to produce food, forage or fiber. The consequence of this ranking is that crops in rotation with pasture will be classified as Cropland, and land with woody plant cover that is used to produce crops (e.g., orchards) is classified as Cropland, even though these areas may meet the definitions of Grassland or Forest Land,

²²¹ Only one year of data are currently available for Alaska so there is no information on land use change for this state.

respectively. Similarly, Wetlands are considered Croplands if they are used for crop production, such as rice or cranberries. Forest Land occurs next in the priority assignment because traditional forestry practices tend to be the focus of the management activity in areas with woody plant cover that are not croplands (e.g., orchards) or settlements (e.g., housing subdivisions with significant tree cover). Grassland occurs next in the ranking, while Wetlands and Other Land complete the list.

The assignment priority does not reflect the level of importance for reporting greenhouse gas emissions and removals on managed land, but is intended to classify all areas into a single land use. Currently, the IPCC does not make provisions in the guidelines for assigning land to multiple uses. For example, a Wetland is classified as Forest Land if the area has sufficient tree cover to meet the stocking and stand size requirements. Similarly, Wetlands are classified as Cropland if they are used for crop production, such as rice or cranberries, or as Grassland if they are composed principally of grasses, grass-like plants (i.e., sedges and rushes), forbs, or shrubs suitable for grazing and browsing. Regardless of the classification, emissions from these areas are included in the Inventory if the land is considered managed and presumably impacted by anthropogenic activity in accordance with the guidance provided in IPCC (2006).

Recalculations Discussion

Relative to the previous Inventory, new data were incorporated from FIA on forestland areas, which were used to make minor adjustments to the time series. FIA conducts a survey of plots annually so that each plot is visited every 5 years (Note: some states have not initiated the annual sampling regime, as discussed previously). Consequently, the time series is updated each year as new data are collected over the 5 year cycles.

Planned Improvements

Preliminary land use area data by land-use category are provided in Box 7-2: Preliminary Estimates of Land Use in United States Territories for the United States Territories. A key planned improvement is to fully incorporate land-use data from these areas into the Inventory. Fortunately, most of the managed land in the United States is included in the current land-use statistics, but a complete accounting is a key goal for the near future. Data sources will also be evaluated for representing land use on federal and non-federal lands in United States territories.

Box 7-2: Preliminary Estimates of Land Use in United States Territories

Several programs have developed land cover maps for United States Territories using remote sensing imagery, including the Gap Analysis program, Caribbean Land Cover project, National Land Cover dataset, USFS Pacific Islands Imagery Project, and the NOAA Coastal Change Analysis Program. These products were reviewed and evaluated for use in the national inventory as a step towards implementing a planned improvement to include United States Territories in the land representation for the Inventory. Recommendations are to use the NOAA Coastal Change Analysis Program (C-CAP) Regional Land Cover Database for the smaller island Territories (U.S. Virgin Islands, Guam, Northern Marianas Islands, and American Samoa) because this program is an ongoing program that will be continually updated and also has reasonable accuracy. The C-CAP product does not cover the entire territory of Puerto Rico so the NLCD was used for this area. The final selection of a land cover product for these Territories is still under discussion. Results are presented below (in hectares). The total land area of all United States Territories is 1.05 million hectares, representing 0.1 percent of the total land base for the United States.

Table 7-8: Total Land Area (Hectares) by Land Use Category for United States Territories.

	Puerto Rico	U.S. Virgin Islands	Guam	Northern Marianas Islands	American Samoa	Total
Cropland	19,712	138	236	289	389	20,764
Forest	404,004	13,107	24,650	25,761	15,440	482,962
Grasslands	299,714	12,148	15,449	13,636	1,830	342,777
Other	5,502	1,006	1,141	5,186	298	13,133
Settlements	130,330	7,650	11,146	3,637	1,734	154,496
Wetlands	24,525	4,748	1,633	260	87	31,252
Total	883,788	38,796	54,255	48,769	19,777	1,045,385

Additional work will be conducted to reconcile differences in Forest Land estimates between the NRI and FIA, evaluating the assumption that the majority of discrepancies in Forest Land areas are associated with an over- or under-estimation of Grassland and Wetland area. In some regions of the United States, a discrepancy in Forest Land areas between NRI and FIA may be associated with an over- or under-prediction of other land uses. This improvement would include an analysis designed to develop region-specific adjustments.

There are also other databases that may need to be reconciled with the NRI and NLCD datasets, particularly for Settlements. Urban area estimates, used to produce C stock and flux estimates from urban trees, are currently based on population data (1990 and 2000 U.S. Census data). Using the population statistics, “urban clusters” are defined as areas with more than 500 people per square mile. The USFS is currently moving ahead with an urban forest inventory program so that urban forest area estimates will be consistent with FIA forest area estimates outside of urban areas, which would be expected to reduce omissions and overlap of forest area estimates along urban boundary areas.

Once approved by the UNFCCC, new guidance in the “2013 Supplement to the *2006 Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Wetlands*” will be implemented in the Inventory. This will likely have implications for the classification of managed and unmanaged wetlands in the Inventory report. More detailed wetlands datasets will also be evaluated and integrated into the analysis in order to implement the new guidance.

The implementation criteria for managed land will also be expanded in the future, particularly in regard to inclusion of areas managed for mining and petroleum extraction. This criterion will have an impact on the managed land base in Alaska although there will still be large tracts of unmanaged land in this region with virtually no direct influence on GHG emissions from human activity.

7.2 Forest Land Remaining Forest Land

Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks (IPCC Source Category 5A1)

For estimating carbon (C) stocks or stock change (flux), C in forest ecosystems can be divided into the following five storage pools (IPCC 2003):

- Aboveground biomass, which includes all living biomass above the soil including stem, stump, branches, bark, seeds, and foliage. This category includes live understory.
- Belowground biomass, which includes all living biomass of coarse living roots greater than 2 mm diameter.
- Dead wood, which includes all non-living woody biomass either standing, lying on the ground (but not including litter), or in the soil.
- Litter, which includes the litter, fomic, and humic layers, and all non-living biomass with a diameter less than 7.5 cm at transect intersection, lying on the ground.
- Soil organic C (SOC), including all organic material in soil to a depth of 1 meter but excluding the coarse roots of the aboveground pools.

In addition, there are two harvested wood pools necessary for estimating C flux:

- Harvested wood products (HWP) in use.
- HWP in solid waste disposal sites (SWDS).

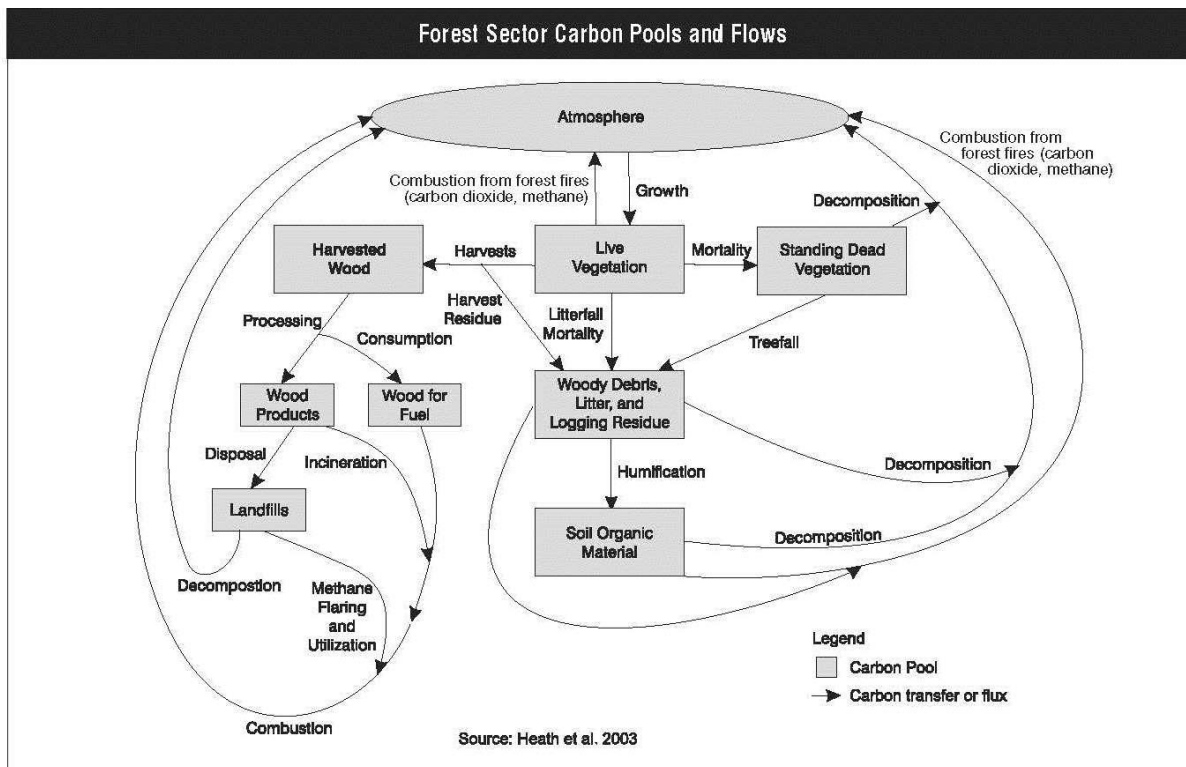
Carbon is continuously cycled among these storage pools and between forest ecosystems and the atmosphere as a result of biological processes in forests (e.g., photosynthesis, respiration, decomposition, and disturbances such as fires or pest outbreaks) and anthropogenic activities (e.g., harvesting, thinning, and replanting). As trees photosynthesize and grow, C is removed from the atmosphere and stored in living tree biomass. As trees die and otherwise deposit litter and debris on the forest floor, C is released to the atmosphere and also is transferred to the soil by organisms that facilitate decomposition.

The net change in forest C is not equivalent to the net flux between forests and the atmosphere because timber harvests do not cause an immediate flux of all vegetation C to the atmosphere. Instead, harvesting transfers a portion of the C stored in wood to a "product pool." Once in a product pool, the C is emitted over time as CO₂ when the wood product combusts or decays. The rate of emission varies considerably among different product pools. For example, if timber is harvested to produce energy, combustion releases C immediately. Conversely, if timber is harvested and used as lumber in a house, it may be many decades or even centuries before the lumber decays and C is released to the atmosphere. If wood products are disposed of in SWDS, the C contained in the wood may be released many years or decades later, or may be stored almost permanently in the SWDS.

This section quantifies the net changes in C stocks in the five forest C pools and two harvested wood pools. The basic methodology for determining carbon stock and stock-change relies on the extensive inventories of U.S. forest lands, and improvement in these inventories over time are reflected in the estimates (Heath et al. 2011, Heath 2012). The net change in stocks for each pool is estimated, and then the changes in stocks are summed over all pools to estimate total net flux. The focus on C implies that all C-based greenhouse gases are included, and the focus on stock change suggests that specific ecosystem fluxes do not need to be separately itemized in this report. Changes in C stocks from disturbances, such as forest fires, are implicitly included in the net changes. For instance, an inventory conducted after fire counts only the trees that are left. The change between inventories thus accounts for the C changes due to fires; however, it may not be possible to attribute the changes to the disturbance specifically. Similarly, changes in C stocks from natural disturbances, such as wildfires, pest outbreaks, and storms, are implicitly accounted for in the forest inventory approach; however, they are highly variable from year to year. Wildfire events are typically the most severe but other natural disturbance events can result in large C stock losses that are time- and location- specific. The IPCC (2003) recommends reporting C stocks according to several land-use types and conversions, specifically *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and *Land Converted to Forest Land*. Research is ongoing to track C across a matrix of land-uses and land-use changes. Until such time that reliable and comprehensive estimates of C across the land-use matrix can be produced, net changes in all forest-related land, including non-forest land converted to forest and forests converted to non-forest, are reported here.

Forest C storage pools, and the flows between them via emissions, sequestration, and transfers, are shown in Figure 7-2. In the figure, boxes represent forest C storage pools and arrows represent flows between storage pools or between storage pools and the atmosphere. Note that the boxes are not identical to the storage pools identified in this chapter. The storage pools identified in this chapter have been refined in this graphic to better illustrate the processes that result in transfers of C from one pool to another, and emissions to as well as uptake from the atmosphere.

Figure 7-2: Forest Sector Carbon Pools and Flows



Approximately 33 percent (304 million hectares) of the U.S. land area is estimated to be forested (Smith et al. 2009). The current forest C inventory includes an estimated 278 million hectares in the conterminous 48 states (USDA Forest Service 2013a, 2013b) that are considered managed and are included in this inventory. An additional 6 million hectares of southeast and south central Alaskan forest are inventoried and are included here. Some differences exist in forest land defined in Smith et al. (2009) and the forest land included in this report, which is based on the USDA Forest Service (2013b) forest land definition. Survey data are not yet available from Hawaii and a large portion of interior Alaska, but estimates of these areas are included in Smith et al. (2009). Updated survey data for central and western forest land in both Oklahoma and Texas have only recently become available, and these forests contribute to overall C stock reported below. While Hawaii and U.S. territories have relatively small areas of forest land and thus may not influence the overall C budget substantially, these regions will be added to the C budget as sufficient data become available. Agroforestry systems are also not currently accounted for in the inventory, since they are not explicitly inventoried by either the FIA program of the USDA Forest Service or the NRI of the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service (Perry et al. 2005).

An estimated 68 percent (208 million hectares) of U.S. forests in Alaska and the conterminous United States are classified as timberland, meaning they meet minimum levels of productivity and have not been removed from production. Nine percent of Alaskan forests and 81 percent of forests in the conterminous United States are classified as timberlands. Of the remaining non-timberland forests, 30 million hectares are reserved forest lands (withdrawn by law from management for production of wood products) and 66 million hectares are lower productivity forest lands (Smith et al. 2009). Historically, the timberlands in the conterminous 48 states have been more frequently or intensively surveyed than other forest lands.

Estimates of forest land area declined by approximately 10 million hectares over the period from the early 1960s to the late 1980s. Since then, forest area has increased by about 12 million hectares (Smith et al. 2009). Current trends in forest area represent an estimated average annual increase of 0.2 percent. In addition to the increase in forest area, the major influences on the current net C flux from forest land are management activities and the ongoing impacts of previous land-use changes. These activities affect the net flux of C by altering the amount of C stored in forest ecosystems. For example, intensified management of forests that leads to an increased rate of growth may

increase the eventual biomass density of the forest, thereby increasing the uptake of C.²²² Though harvesting forests removes much of the aboveground C, on average the estimated volume of annual net growth nationwide is about 72 percent higher than the volume of annual removals on timberlands (Smith et al. 2009). The reversion of cropland to forest land increases C storage in biomass, forest floor, and soils. The net effects of forest management and the effects of land-use change involving forest land are captured in the estimates of C stocks and fluxes presented in this chapter.

In the United States, improved forest management practices, the regeneration of previously cleared forest areas, and timber harvesting and use have resulted in net uptake (i.e., net sequestration) of C each year from 1990 through 2012. The rate of forest clearing begun in the 17th century following European settlement had slowed by the late 19th century. Through the later part of the 20th century many areas of previously forested land in the United States were allowed to revert to forests or were actively reforested. The impacts of these land-use changes still influence C fluxes from these forest lands. More recently, the 1970s and 1980s saw a resurgence of federally-sponsored forest management programs (e.g., the Forestry Incentive Program) and soil conservation programs (e.g., the Conservation Reserve Program), which have focused on tree planting, improving timber management activities, combating soil erosion, and converting marginal cropland to forests. In addition to forest regeneration and management, forest harvests have also affected net C fluxes. Because most of the timber harvested from U.S. forests is used in wood products, and many discarded wood products are disposed of in SWDS rather than by incineration, significant quantities of C in harvested wood are transferred to long-term storage pools rather than being released rapidly to the atmosphere (Skog and Nicholson 1998, Skog 2008). The size of these long-term C storage pools has increased during the last century with the question arising as to how long the U.S. forests can remain a net C sink (Woodall et al. 2013).

Changes in C stocks in U.S. forests and harvested wood were estimated to account for net sequestration of 866 Tg CO₂ Eq. (236 Tg C) in 2012 (Table 7-9, Table 7-10, and Table 7-11). In addition to the net accumulation of C in harvested wood pools, sequestration is a reflection of net forest growth and increasing forest area over this period. Overall, estimates of average C in forest ecosystem biomass (aboveground and belowground) increased from 54 to 62 Mg C/ha between 1990 and 2013 (see Annex 3-13 for average C densities by specific regions and forest types). Continuous, regular annual surveys are not available over the period for each state; therefore, estimates for non-survey years were derived by interpolation between known data points. Survey years vary from state to state, and national estimates are a composite of individual state surveys. Therefore, changes in sequestration over the interval 1990 to 2012 are the result of the sequences of new inventories for each state. C in forest ecosystem biomass had the greatest effect on total change through increases in C density and total forest land. Management practices that increase C stocks on forest land, as well as afforestation and reforestation efforts, influence the trends of increased C densities in forests and increased forest land in the United States.

Annual net additions to HWP carbon stock are about the same for 2012 as in 2011. Additions to solid-wood products in use increased a little with further recovery of the housing market, but additions to paper products in use declined. Net additions to products in use for 2012 is less than 15 percent of the level of net additions to product in use in 2007—prior to the recession. Additions to landfills have been relatively stable over time.

²²² The term “biomass density” refers to the mass of live vegetation per unit area. It is usually measured on a dry-weight basis. Dry biomass is 50 percent C by weight.

Table 7-9: Estimated Net Annual Changes in C Stocks (Tg CO₂/yr) in Forest and Harvested Wood Pools

Carbon Pool	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Forest	(572.8)	(824.4)	(795.2)	(795.2)	(796.4)	(800.0)	(800.0)
Aboveground Biomass	(354.5)	(442.0)	(435.0)	(435.0)	(435.0)	(435.0)	(435.0)
Belowground Biomass	(69.2)	(87.0)	(86.4)	(86.4)	(86.4)	(86.4)	(86.4)
Dead Wood	(50.6)	(64.7)	(73.4)	(73.4)	(74.5)	(78.2)	(78.2)
Litter	(24.0)	(46.1)	(51.2)	(51.2)	(51.2)	(51.2)	(51.2)
Soil Organic Carbon	(74.5)	(184.5)	(149.3)	(149.3)	(149.3)	(149.3)	(149.3)
Harvested Wood	(131.8)	(102.8)	(75.8)	(54.1)	(59.3)	(67.1)	(66.5)
Products in Use	(64.8)	(43.1)	(13.3)	6.7	1.2	(5.8)	(4.9)
SWDS	(67.0)	(59.7)	(62.5)	(60.9)	(60.5)	(61.2)	(61.6)
Total Net Flux	(704.6)	(927.2)	(871.0)	(849.4)	(855.7)	(867.1)	(866.5)

Note: Forest C stocks do not include forest stocks in U.S. territories, Hawaii, a portion of managed forests in Alaska, or trees on non-forest land (e.g., urban trees, agroforestry systems). Parentheses indicate net C sequestration (i.e., a net removal of C from the atmosphere). Total net flux is an estimate of the actual net flux between the total forest C pool and the atmosphere. Forest area estimates are based on interpolation and extrapolation of inventory data as described in the text and in Annex 3.13. Harvested wood estimates are based on results from annual surveys and models. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-10: Estimated Net Annual Changes in C Stocks (Tg C/yr) in Forest and Harvested Wood Pools

Carbon Pool	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Forest	(156.2)	(224.8)	(216.9)	(216.9)	(217.2)	(218.2)	(218.2)
Aboveground Biomass	(96.7)	(120.6)	(118.6)	(118.6)	(118.6)	(118.6)	(118.6)
Belowground Biomass	(18.9)	(23.7)	(23.6)	(23.6)	(23.6)	(23.6)	(23.6)
Dead Wood	(13.8)	(17.6)	(20.0)	(20.0)	(20.3)	(21.3)	(21.3)
Litter	(6.5)	(12.6)	(14.0)	(14.0)	(14.0)	(14.0)	(14.0)
Soil Organic C	(20.3)	(50.3)	(40.7)	(40.7)	(40.7)	(40.7)	(40.7)
Harvested Wood	(35.9)	(28.0)	(20.7)	(14.8)	(16.2)	(18.3)	(18.1)
Products in Use	(17.7)	(11.7)	(3.6)	1.8	0.3	(1.6)	(1.3)
SWDS	(18.3)	(16.3)	(17.0)	(16.6)	(16.5)	(16.7)	(16.8)
Total Net Flux	(192.2)	(252.9)	(237.6)	(231.6)	(233.4)	(236.5)	(236.3)

Note: Forest C stocks do not include forest stocks in U.S. territories, Hawaii, a portion of managed lands in Alaska, or trees on non-forest land (e.g., urban trees, agroforestry systems). Parentheses indicate net C sequestration (i.e., a net removal of C from the atmosphere). Total net flux is an estimate of the actual net flux between the total forest C pool and the atmosphere. Harvested wood estimates are based on results from annual surveys and models. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Stock estimates for forest and harvested wood C storage pools are presented in Table 7-11. Together, the estimated aboveground live and forest soil pools account for a large proportion of total forest C stocks. The estimated C stocks summed for non-soil pools increased over time. Therefore, the estimated C sequestration was greater than C emissions from forests, as discussed above. When FIA plot data are viewed in a spatial context, the imputed C density of individual forest ecosystem pools is highly variable across the diverse ecosystems of the United States (Wilson et al. 2013), indicating the technical hurdles to accurate accounting.

Table 7-11: Estimated Forest area (1,000 ha) and C Stocks (Tg C) in Forest and Harvested Wood Pools

	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Forest Area (1000 ha)	275,399	282,583	284,345	284,858	285,371	285,884	286,397	286,910
Carbon Pools (Tg C)								
Forest	38,967	41,377	42,038	42,255	42,472	42,689	42,907	43,126
Aboveground Biomass	12,318	13,915	14,272	14,391	14,510	14,628	14,747	14,866
Belowground Biomass	2,437	2,751	2,822	2,846	2,869	2,893	2,916	2,940

Dead Wood	2,147	2,404	2,461	2,481	2,501	2,521	2,542	2,564
Litter	4,897	4,946	4,986	5,000	5,014	5,028	5,042	5,056
Soil Organic C	17,168	17,361	17,497	17,538	17,578	17,619	17,660	17,700
Harvested Wood	1,859	2,325	2,410	2,430	2,445	2,461	2,480	2,498
Products in Use	1,231	1,435	1,469	1,473	1,471	1,471	1,472	1,474
SWDS	628	890	940	958	974	991	1,007	1,024
Total C Stock	40,826	43,701	44,448	44,686	44,917	45,151	45,387	45,623

Note: Forest area estimates include portions of managed forests in Alaska for which survey data are available. Forest C stocks do not include forest stocks in U.S. territories, Hawaii, a large portion of Alaska, or trees on non-forest land (e.g., urban trees, agroforestry systems). Wood product stocks include exports, even if the logs are processed in other countries, and exclude imports. Forest area estimates are based on interpolation and extrapolation of inventory data as described in Smith et al. (2010) and in Annex 3.13. Harvested wood estimates are based on results from annual surveys and models. Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Inventories are assumed to represent stocks as of January 1 of the inventory year. Flux is the net annual change in stock. Thus, an estimate of flux for 2006 requires estimates of C stocks for 2006 and 2007.

Figure 7-3: Estimates of Net Annual Changes in C Stocks for Major C Pools

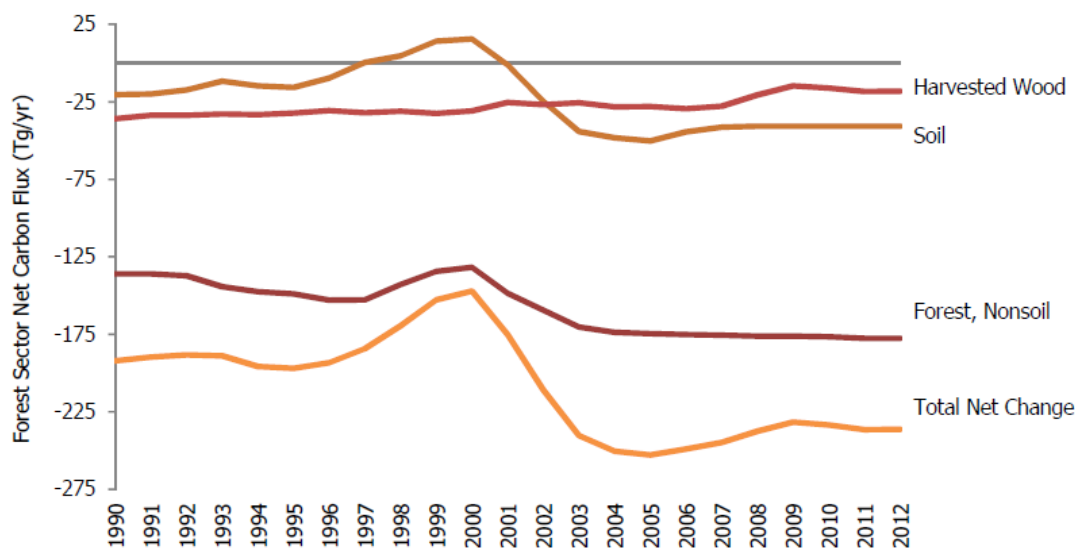


Figure 7-4: Forest Ecosystem Carbon Density Imputed from Forest Inventory Plots, Conterminous U.S., 2001-2009

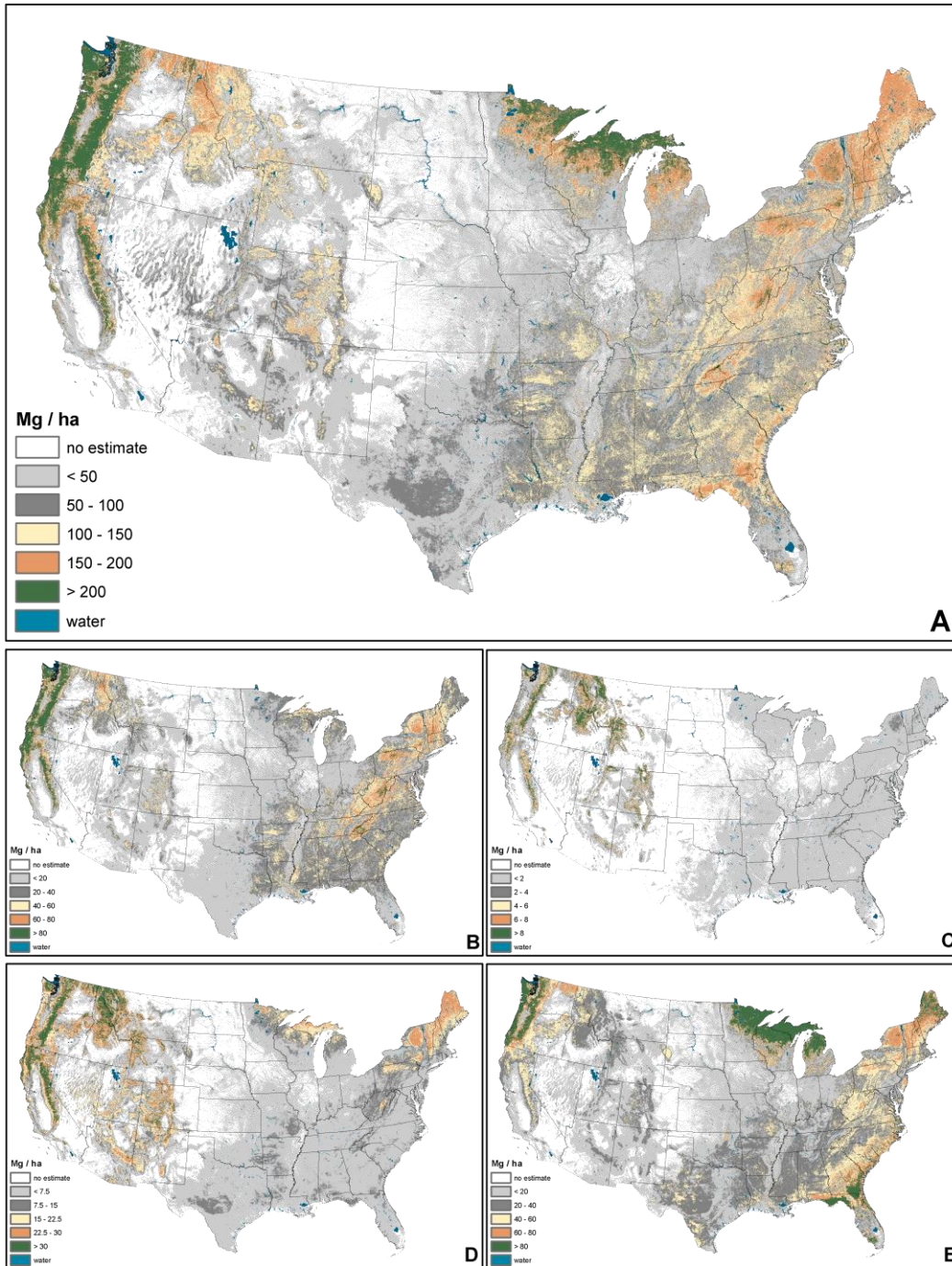


Figure 7-4 shows A) total forest ecosystem carbon, B) aboveground live trees, C) standing dead trees, D) litter, and E) soil organic carbon (Wilson et al. 2013).

Box 7-3: CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires

As stated previously, the forest inventory approach implicitly accounts for emissions due to disturbances such as forest fires, because only C remaining in the forest is estimated. Net C stock change is estimated by subtracting

consecutive C stock estimates. A forest fire disturbance removes C from the forest. The inventory data on which net C stock estimates are based already reflect this C loss. Therefore, estimates of net annual changes in C stocks for U.S. forestland already account for CO₂ emissions from forest fires occurring in the lower 48 states as well as in the proportion of Alaska’s managed forest land captured in this Inventory. Because it is of interest to quantify the magnitude of CO₂ emissions from fire disturbance, these estimates are highlighted here, using the full extent of available data. Non-CO₂ greenhouse gas emissions from forest fires are also quantified in a separate section below.

The IPCC (2003) methodology and IPCC (2006) default combustion factor for wildfire were employed to estimate CO₂ emissions from forest fires. See the explanation in Annex 3.13 for more details on the methodology used to estimate CO₂ emissions from forest fires. Carbon dioxide emissions for wildfires and prescribed fires in the lower 48 states and wildfires in Alaska in 2012 were estimated to be 242.7 Tg CO₂/yr. This amount is masked in the estimate of net annual forest C stock change for 2012 because this net estimate accounts for the amount sequestered minus any emissions.

Table 7-12: Estimates of CO₂ (Tg/yr) Emissions for the Lower 48 States and Alaska

Year	CO ₂ emitted from Wildfires in Lower 48 States (Tg/yr)	CO ₂ emitted from Prescribed Fires in Lower 48 States (Tg/yr)	CO ₂ emitted from Wildfires in Alaska (Tg/yr)	Total CO ₂ emitted (Tg/yr)
1990	32.6	7.2	+	39.7
2005	107.7	21.1	+	128.8
2008	123.4	15.6	+	139.0
2009	71.2	20.5	+	91.6
2010	55.4	19.7	+	75.1
2011	204.5	17.3	+	221.8
2012	226.2	16.6	+	242.7

+ Does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note that these emissions have already been accounted for in the estimates of net annual changes in C stocks, which account for the amount sequestered minus any emissions.

Methodology and Data Sources

The methodology described herein is consistent with IPCC (2003, 2006) and IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA (1997). Forest ecosystem C stocks and net annual C stock change were determined according to stock-difference methods, which involved applying C estimation factors to forest inventory data and interpolating between successive inventory-based estimates of C stocks. Harvested wood C estimates were based on factors such as the allocation of wood to various primary and end-use products as well as half-life (the time at which half of the amount placed in use will have been discarded from use) and expected disposition (e.g., product pool, SWDS, combustion). An overview of the different methodologies and data sources used to estimate the C in forest ecosystems or harvested wood products is provided here. See Annex 3.13 for details and additional information related to the methods and data.

Forest Ecosystem Carbon from Forest Inventory

Forest ecosystem stock and flux estimates are based on the stock-difference method and calculations for all estimates are in units of C. Separate estimates were made for the five IPCC C storage pools described above. All estimates were based on data collected from the extensive array of permanent forest inventory plots in the United States as well as models employed to fill gaps in field data (USDA Forest Service 2013b, 2013c). Carbon conversion factors were applied at the disaggregated level of each inventory plot and then appropriately expanded to population estimates. A combination of tiers as outlined by IPCC (2006) was used. The Tier 3 biomass C values were calculated from forest inventory tree-level data. The Tier 2 dead organic and soil C pools were based on

empirical or process models from the inventory data. All C conversion factors are specific to regions or individual states within the United States, which were further classified according to characteristic forest types within each region.

The first step in developing forest ecosystem estimates is to identify useful inventory data and resolve any inconsistencies among datasets. Forest inventory data were obtained from the FIA program (Frayer and Furnival 1999, USDA Forest Service 2013b). Inventories include data collected on permanent inventory plots on forest lands and were organized as a number of separate datasets, each representing a complete inventory, or survey, of an individual state at a specified time.²²³ Many of the more recent annual inventories reported for states were represented as “moving window” averages, which means that a portion—but not all—of the previous year’s inventory is updated each year (USDA Forest Service 2013d). Forest C calculations were organized according to these state surveys, and the frequency of surveys varies by state. All available data sets were identified for each state starting with pre-1990 data, and all unique surveys were identified for stock and change calculations. Since C stock change is based on differences between successive surveys within each state, accurate estimates of net C flux thus depend on consistent representation of forest land between these successive inventories. In order to achieve this consistency from 1990 to the present, states were sometimes subdivided into sub-state areas where the sum of sub-state inventories produces the best whole-state representation of C change as discussed in Smith et al. (2010).

The principal FIA datasets employed are freely available for download at USDA Forest Service (2013b) as the Forest Inventory and Analysis Database (FIADB) Version 5.1.6 (USDA Forest Service 2013c). However, to achieve consistent representation (spatial and temporal), three other general sources of past FIA data were included as necessary. First, older FIA plot- and tree-level data—not in the current FIADB format—were used if available. Second, Resources Planning Act Assessment (RPA) databases, which are periodic, plot-level only, summaries of state inventories, were used to provide the data at or before 1990. Finally, an additional forest inventory data source used was the Integrated Database (IDB), which is a compilation of periodic forest inventory data from the 1990s for California, Oregon, and Washington (Waddell and Hiserote 2005). These IDB data were identified by Heath et al. (2011) as the most appropriate non-FIADB sources for these states and were included in this inventory. See USDA Forest Service (2013a) for information on current and older data as well as additional FIA Program features. A detailed list of the specific forest inventory data used in this inventory is included in Annex 3.13.

Forest C stocks were estimated from inventory data by a collection of conversion factors and models (Birdsey and Heath 1995, Birdsey and Heath 2001, Heath et al. 2003, Smith et al. 2004, Smith et al. 2006), which have been formalized in an FIADB-to-C calculator (Smith et al. 2010). The conversion factors and model coefficients were categorized by region and forest type, and forest C stock estimates were calculated from application of these factors at the scale of FIA inventory plots. The results were estimates of C density (Mg C per hectare) for six forest ecosystem pools: live trees, standing dead trees, understory vegetation, down dead wood, forest floor, and soil organic matter. The six C pools used in the FIADB-to-C calculator were aggregated to the five C pools defined by IPCC (2006): aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, dead wood, litter, and soil organic matter. The live-tree and understory C were pooled as biomass, and standing dead trees and down dead wood were pooled as dead wood, in accordance with IPCC (2006).

Once plot-level C stocks were calculated as C densities on *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* for the five IPCC (2006) reporting pools, the stocks were expanded to population estimates according to methods appropriate to the respective inventory data (for example, see Bechtold and Patterson (2005)). These expanded C stock estimates were summed to state or sub-state total C stocks. Annualized estimates of C stocks were developed by using available FIA inventory data and interpolating or extrapolating to assign a C stock to each year in the 1990 through 2013 time series. Flux, or net annual stock change, was estimated by calculating the difference in stocks between two successive years and applying the appropriate sign convention; net increases in ecosystem C were identified as negative flux. By convention, inventories were assigned to represent stocks as of January 1 of the inventory year; an estimate of flux for 1996 required estimates of C stocks for 1996 and 1997, for example. Additional discussion of the use of FIA inventory data and the C conversion process is in Annex 3.13.

Carbon in Biomass

²²³ Forest land in the United States includes land that is at least 10 percent stocked with trees of any size. Timberland is the most productive type of forest land, which is on unreserved land and is producing or capable of producing crops of industrial wood.

Live tree C pools include aboveground and belowground (coarse root) biomass of live trees with diameter at diameter breast height (dbh) of at least 2.54 cm at 1.37 m above the forest floor. Separate estimates were made for above- and below-ground biomass components. If inventory plots included data on individual trees, tree C was based on Woodall et al. (2011a), which is also known as the component ratio method (CRM), and is a function of volume, species, and diameter. An additional component of foliage, which was not explicitly included in Woodall et al. (2011a), was added to each tree following the same CRM method. Some of the older forest inventory data in use for these estimates did not provide measurements of individual trees. Examples of these data include plots with incomplete or missing tree data or the RPA plot-level summaries. The C estimates for these plots were based on average densities (metric tons C per hectare) obtained from plots of more recent surveys with similar stand characteristics and location. This applies to less than 5 percent of the forest land inventory-plot-to-C conversions within the 193 state-level surveys utilized here.

Understory vegetation is a minor component of biomass, which is defined as all biomass of undergrowth plants in a forest, including woody shrubs and trees less than 2.54 cm dbh. In the current inventory, it was assumed that 10 percent of total understory C mass is belowground. Estimates of C density were based on information in Birdsey (1996) and biomass estimates from Jenkins et al. (2003). Understory frequently represented over 1 percent of C in biomass, but its contribution rarely exceeded 2 percent of the total.

Carbon in Dead Organic Matter

Dead organic matter was initially calculated as three separate pools—standing dead trees, down dead wood, and litter—with C stocks estimated from sample data or modeled. The standing dead tree C pools include aboveground and belowground (coarse root) mass and include trees of at least 12.7 cm dbh. Calculations followed the basic method applied to live trees (Woodall et al. 2011a) with additional modifications to account for decay and structural loss (Domke et al. 2011, Harmon et al. 2011). Similar to the situation with live tree data, some of the older forest inventory data did not provide sufficient data on standing dead trees to make accurate population-level estimates. The C estimates for these plots were based on average densities (metric tons C per hectare) obtained from plots of more recent surveys with similar stand characteristics and location. This applied to 23 percent of the forest land inventory-plot-to-C conversions within the 193 state-level surveys utilized here. Down dead wood estimates are based on measurement of a subset of FIA plots for downed dead wood (Domke et al. 2013, Woodall and Monleon 2008, Woodall et al. 2013). Down dead wood is defined as pieces of dead wood greater than 7.5 cm diameter, at transect intersection, that are not attached to live or standing dead trees. This includes stumps and roots of harvested trees. To facilitate the downscaling of downed dead wood C estimates from the state-wide population estimates to individual plots, downed dead wood models specific to regions and forest types within each region are used. Litter C is the pool of organic C (also known as duff, humus, and fine woody debris) above the mineral soil and includes woody fragments with diameters of up to 7.5 cm. Estimates are based on equations of Smith and Heath (2002).

Carbon in Forest Soil

Soil organic C includes all organic material in soil to a depth of 1 meter but excludes the coarse roots of the biomass or dead wood pools. Estimates of SOC were based on the national STATSGO spatial database (USDA 1991), which includes region and soil type information. Soil organic C determination was based on the general approach described by Amichev and Galbraith (2004). Links to FIA inventory data were developed with the assistance of the USDA Forest Service FIA Geospatial Service Center by overlaying FIA forest inventory plots on the soil C map. This method produced mean SOC densities stratified by region and forest type group. It did not provide separate estimates for mineral or organic soils but instead weighted their contribution to the overall average based on the relative amount of each within forest land. Thus, forest SOC is a function of species and location, and net change also depends on these two factors as total forest area changes. In this respect, SOC provides a country-specific reference stock for 1990 through the present, but it does not reflect the effects of past land use.

Harvested Wood Carbon

Estimates of the HWP contribution to forest C sinks and emissions (hereafter called “HWP Contribution”) were based on methods described in Skog (2008) using the WOODCARB II model. These methods are based on IPCC (2006) guidance for estimating HWP C. IPCC (2006) provides methods that allow for reporting of HWP Contribution using one of several different accounting approaches: production, stock change and atmospheric flow, as well as a default method that assumes there is no change in HWP C stocks (see Annex 3.13 for more details about

each approach). The United States used the production accounting approach to report HWP Contribution. Under the production approach, C in exported wood was estimated as if it remains in the United States, and C in imported wood was not included in inventory estimates. Though reported U.S. HWP estimates are based on the production approach, estimates resulting from use of the two alternative approaches, the stock change and atmospheric flow approaches, are also presented for comparison (see Annex 3.13). Annual estimates of change were calculated by tracking the additions to and removals from the pool of products held in end uses (i.e., products in use such as housing or publications) and the pool of products held in solid waste disposal sites (SWDS). Emissions from HWP associated with wood biomass energy are not included in this accounting—a net of zero sequestration and emissions as they are a part of energy accounting (see Chapter 3).

Solidwood products added to pools include lumber and panels. End-use categories for solidwood include single and multifamily housing, alteration and repair of housing, and other end-uses. There is one product category and one end-use category for paper. Additions to and removals from pools were tracked beginning in 1900, with the exception that additions of softwood lumber to housing began in 1800. Solidwood and paper product production and trade data were taken from USDA Forest Service and other sources (Hair and Ulrich 1963; Hair 1958; USDC Bureau of Census; 1976; Ulrich, 1985, 1989; Steer 1948; AF&PA 2006a 2006b; Howard 2003, 2007). Estimates for disposal of products reflected the change over time in the fraction of products discarded to SWDS (as opposed to burning or recycling) and the fraction of SWDS that were in sanitary landfills versus dumps.

There are five annual HWP variables that were used in varying combinations to estimate HWP Contribution using any one of the three main approaches listed above. These are:

- (1A) annual change of C in wood and paper products in use in the United States,
- (1B) annual change of C in wood and paper products in SWDS in the United States,
- (2A) annual change of C in wood and paper products in use in the United States and other countries where the wood came from trees harvested in the United States,
- (2B) annual change of C in wood and paper products in SWDS in the United States and other countries where the wood came from trees harvested in the United States,
- (3) C in imports of wood, pulp, and paper to the United States,
- (4) C in exports of wood, pulp and paper from the United States, and
- (5) C in annual harvest of wood from forests in the United States.

The sum of variables 2A and 2B yielded the estimate for HWP Contribution under the production accounting approach. A key assumption for estimating these variables was that products exported from the United States and held in pools in other countries have the same half-lives for products in use, the same percentage of discarded products going to SWDS, and the same decay rates in SWDS as they would in the United States.

Uncertainty and Time Series Consistency

A quantitative uncertainty analysis placed bounds on current flux for forest ecosystems as well as C in harvested wood products through Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation of the Methods described above and probabilistic sampling of C conversion factors and inventory data. See Annex 3.13 for additional information. The 2012 net annual change for forest C stocks was estimated to be between -999 and -735 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This includes a range of -932 to -669 Tg CO₂ Eq. in forest ecosystems and -84 to -51 Tg CO₂ Eq. for HWP.

Table 7-13: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Net CO₂ Flux from Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: Changes in Forest C Stocks (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Forest Ecosystem	CO ₂	(800.0)	(932.3)	(668.8)	-16.5	+16.4
Harvested Wood Products	CO ₂	(66.5)	(84.4)	(50.8)	-26.9	+23.5
Total Forest	CO₂	(866.5)	(999.3)	(734.9)	-15.3	+15.2

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values or net sequestration.

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo stochastic simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

As discussed above, the FIA program has conducted consistent forest surveys based on extensive statistically-based sampling of most of the forest land in the conterminous United States, dating back to 1952. The FIA program includes numerous quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC) procedures, including calibration among field crews, duplicate surveys of some plots, and systematic checking of recorded data. Because of the statistically-based sampling, the large number of survey plots, and the quality of the data, the survey databases developed by the FIA program form a strong foundation for C stock estimates. Field sampling protocols, summary data, and detailed inventory databases are archived and are publicly available on the Internet (USDA Forest Service 2013d).

Many key calculations for estimating current forest C stocks based on FIA data were developed to fill data gaps in assessing forest C and have been in use for many years to produce national assessments of forest C stocks and stock changes (see additional discussion and citations in the Methodology section above and in Annex 3.13). General quality control procedures were used in performing calculations to estimate C stocks based on survey data. For example, the derived C datasets, which include inventory variables such as areas and volumes, were compared to standard inventory summaries such as the forest resource statistics of Smith et al. (2009) or selected population estimates generated from FIADB 5.1.6, which are available at an FIA internet site (USDA Forest Service 2013b). Agreement between the C datasets and the original inventories is important to verify accuracy of the data used. Finally, C stock estimates were compared with previous Inventory report estimates to ensure that any differences could be explained by either new data or revised calculation methods (see the “Recalculations” discussion, below).

Estimates of the HWP variables and the HWP contribution under the production accounting approach use data from U.S. Census and USDA Forest Service surveys of production and trade. Factors to convert wood and paper to units C are based on estimates by industry and Forest Service published sources. The WOODCARB II model uses estimation methods suggested by IPCC (2006). Estimates of annual C change in solid wood and paper products in use were calibrated to meet two independent criteria. The first criterion is that the WOODCARB II model estimate of C in houses standing in 2001 needs to match an independent estimate of C in housing based on U.S. Census and USDA Forest Service survey data. Meeting the first criterion resulted in an estimated half-life of about 80 years for single family housing built in the 1920s, which is confirmed by other U.S. Census data on housing. The second criterion is that the WOODCARB II model estimate of wood and paper being discarded to SWDS needs to match EPA estimates of discards each year over the period 1990 to 2000 (EPA 2006). These criteria help reduce uncertainty in estimates of annual change in C in products in use in the United States and, to a lesser degree, reduce uncertainty in estimates of annual change in C in products made from wood harvested in the United States. In addition, WOODCARB II landfill decay rates have been validated by ensuring that estimates of CH₄ emissions from landfills based on EPA (2006) data are reasonable in comparison to CH₄ estimates based on WOODCARB II landfill decay rates.

Recalculations Discussion

Methods for forest inventory-to-carbon conversion and calculations of stock and stock-change remain unchanged from the previous Inventory (EPA 2013). Updates to the annual forest inventories for many states were the source of changes in the forest ecosystem carbon stocks and stock-change estimates relative to the previous year's report. Data for two states—New Mexico and Alaska—affected the classification of forestland used to compile sub-state stocks. Annual data became available for New Mexico, and in order to maintain consistent definitions with older forest inventories, the non-National Forest forestland was reclassified as timberland and non-timberland. Alaska sub-state classifications were renamed with the reserved forestlands pooled to a single classification. In addition, the periodic Alaska forest inventory—nominal year of 2003—became available in the current FIADB 5.1.6. See Annex 3.13 for specifics of inventories in use, including the modification to sub-state classifications for New Mexico and Alaska. The estimate of annual change in HWP C stock and total C stock in HWP were revised downward by small amounts for selected years back to 1998. This was mostly due to changes in the amount of pulpwood used for paper and composite panel products back to 2003. All the adjustments were made as a result of corrections in the database of forest products statistics used to prepare the estimates (Howard and Westby 2013). The greatest change was to estimates of carbon added to paper products in use. The estimate of total C stored in HWP in 2011 decreased by less than 0.1 percent from the estimate reported in the previous Inventory. The estimates of HWP annual change were revised downward by small amounts back to 2003 for selected years due to changes in the amounts of pulpwood used for paper and composite panels as published in the primary database used to prepare the estimates (Howard 2013). The changes result in a reduction of less than 0.1 percent in the estimated total C stored in HWP for the start of 2013.

Planned Improvements

Reliable estimates of forest C across the diverse ecosystems/industries of the United States require a high level of investment in both annual monitoring and associated analytical techniques. Development of improved monitoring/reporting techniques is a continuous process that occurs simultaneously with annual NGHGI submissions. Only when forest C monitoring techniques are thoroughly vetted are they adopted as part of the NGHGI. Planned improvements can be broadly assigned to the following categories: pool estimation techniques, land use and land use change, and field inventories.

In an effort to reduce the uncertainty associated with the estimation of individual forest C pools, the empirical data and associated models for each pool is being evaluated for potential improvement (Woodall 2012). In the 1990 through 2010 Inventory report, the approach to tree volume/biomass estimation was evaluated and refined (Domke et al. 2012). In the 1990 through 2011 Inventory report, the standing dead tree C simulation model was replaced with a nationwide inventory and associated empirical estimation techniques (Woodall et al. 2012, Domke et al. 2011, Harmon et al. 2011). In the current Inventory report, the downed dead tree C simulation model was refined with a nearly nationwide field inventory (Woodall et al. 2013, Domke et al. 2013). The exact timing of future pool estimation refinements is dependent on the vetting of current research outcomes. Research is underway to use a national inventory of forest litter and SOC (Woodall et al. 2011b) to refine the estimation of these pools. It is expected that improvements to litter estimation will be incorporated into either the 1990-2013 Inventory report or the 1990-2014 Inventory report followed by SOC estimation improvements. Components of other pools, such as C in belowground biomass and understory vegetation (Russell et al. In Review), are being explored but may require additional investment in field inventories before improvements can be realized with NGHGI submissions.

Despite a consistent nationwide field inventory of forests that is measured annually, additional research advances are needed to attain a complete, consistent, and accurate time series of annual land-use and land-use change matrices from 1990 to the present report year. Lines of research have been initiated to explore techniques for bringing together disparate sets of land use information (e.g., forest versus croplands) that rely on remotely sensed imagery from the 1980s to the present (NASA CMS 2013). These lines of research are expected to require at least three years for completion with subsequent time needed for application to future NGHGI submission. In an effort to align the definition of forests with the international community (FAO 2010) and potentially expand the forest inventory domain to an all vegetation inventory on all lands (e.g., woodlands and settlements), it is expected that the 1990 through 2013 Inventory report will exclude forest inventory plots that occur in shrublands (i.e., woodlands where minimum tree heights are not attained) from the forest land use category (reason why forest area estimates may diverge between Smith et al. 2009 and those in this report). Inventory plots excluded from forest land use accounting (potentially millions of hectares but with low C density; e.g., west Texas) may be used to inform C

monitoring in other land uses. This represents a future opportunity to refine land use accounting associated with vegetation in land uses beyond forests such as grasslands (where woodlands/shrublands are a type), wetlands, and settlements.

The foundation of forest C accounting is the annual forest inventory system. The ongoing annual surveys by the FIA Program are expected to improve the precision of forest C estimates as new state surveys become available (USDA Forest Service 2013b), particularly in western states. The annual surveys will eventually include all states. As of July 11, 2013, two states are not yet reporting any data from the annualized sampling design of FIA: Hawaii and Wyoming. Estimates for Wyoming are currently based on older, periodic data. Hawaii and U.S. territories will also be included when appropriate forest C data are available. In addition, the more intensive sampling of fine woody debris, litter, and SOC on some of the permanent FIA plots continues and will substantially improve resolution of C pools (i.e., greater sample intensity; Westfall et al. 2013) at the plot level for all U.S. forest land as this information becomes available (Woodall et al. 2011b). Increased sample intensity of some C pools, refined managed land delineation of Alaska’s forests, and using annualized sampling data as it becomes available for those states currently not reporting are planned for future submissions.

Non-CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires

Emissions of non-CO₂ gases from forest fires were estimated using the default IPCC (2003) methodology incorporating default IPCC (2006) emissions factors and combustion factor for wildfires. Emissions from this source in 2012 were estimated to be 15.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. of CH₄ and 12.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. of N₂O, as shown in Table 7-14 and Table 7-15. The estimates of non-CO₂ emissions from forest fires account for wildfires in the lower 48 states and Alaska as well as prescribed fires in the lower 48 states.

Table 7-14: Estimated Non-CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires (Tg CO₂ Eq.) for U.S. Forests

Gas	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH ₄	2.5	8.1	8.7	5.8	4.7	14.0	15.3
N ₂ O	2.0	6.6	7.1	4.7	3.9	11.4	12.5
Total	4.5	14.7	15.9	10.5	8.6	25.3	27.7

Note: Calculated based on C emission estimates in *Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks* and default factors in IPCC (2006).

Table 7-15: Estimated Non-CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires (Gg Gas) for U.S. Forests

Gas	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH ₄	119	386	416	275	225	664	727
N ₂ O	7	21	23	15	12	37	40

Note: Calculated based on C emission estimates in *Changes in Forest Carbon Stocks* and default factors in IPCC (2006).

Methodology

The IPCC (2003) Tier 2 default methodology was used to calculate C and CO₂ emissions from forest fires. However, more up-to-date **default emission factors from IPCC (2006) were converted into gas-specific emission ratios and incorporated into the methodology to calculate non-CO₂ emissions from C emissions. Estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions were calculated by multiplying the total estimated CO₂ emitted from forest burned by the gas-specific emissions ratios. CO₂ emissions were estimated by multiplying total C emitted (Table 7-16) by the C to CO₂ conversion factor of 44/12 and by 92.8 percent, which is the estimated proportion of C emitted as CO₂ (Smith 2008a). The equations used to calculate CH₄ and N₂O emissions were:**

$$\text{CH}_4 \text{ Emissions} = (\text{C released}) \times 92.8\% \times (44/12) \times (\text{CH}_4 \text{ to CO}_2 \text{ emission ratio})$$

$$\text{N}_2\text{O Emissions} = (\text{C released}) \times 92.8\% \times (44/12) \times (\text{N}_2\text{O to CO}_2 \text{ emission ratio})$$

Where CH₄ to CO₂ emission ratio is 0.003 and N₂O to CO₂ emission ratio is 0.0002. See the explanation in Annex 3.13 for more details on the CH₄ and N₂O to CO₂ emission ratios.

Estimates for C emitted from forest fires are the same estimates used to generate estimates of CO₂ presented earlier in Box 7-3. Estimates for C emitted include emissions from wildfires in both Alaska and the lower 48 states as well as emissions from prescribed fires in the lower 48 states only (based on expert judgment that prescribed fires only occur in the lower 48 states) (Smith 2008a). The IPCC (2006) default combustion factor of 0.45 for “all ‘other’ temperate forests” was applied in estimating C emitted from both wildfires and prescribed fires. See the explanation in Annex 3.13 for more details on the methodology used to estimate C emitted from forest fires.

Table 7-16: Estimated Carbon Released from Forest Fires for U.S. Forests (Tg/yr)

Year	C Emitted (Tg/yr)
1990	11.7
2005	37.9
2008	40.9
2009	26.9
2010	22.1
2011	65.2
2012	71.3

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Non-CO₂ gases emitted from forest fires depend on several variables, including: forest area for Alaska and the lower 48 states; average C densities for wildfires in Alaska, wildfires in the lower 48 states, and prescribed fires in the lower 48 states; emission ratios; and combustion factor values (proportion of biomass consumed by fire). To quantify the uncertainties for emissions from forest fires, a Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was performed using information about the uncertainty surrounding each of these variables. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-17.

Table 7-17: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates of Non-CO₂ Emissions from Forest Fires in *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Non-CO ₂ Emissions from Forest Fires	CH ₄	15.3	2.7	42.1	-82%	+176%
Non-CO ₂ Emissions from Forest Fires	N ₂ O	12.5	3.2	30.4	-74%	+144%

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

Tier 1 and Tier 2 QA/QC activities were conducted consistent with the U.S. QA/QC plan. Source-specific quality control measures for forest fires included checking input data, documentation, and calculations to ensure data were properly handled through the inventory process. Errors that were found during this process were corrected as necessary.

Recalculations Discussion

The National Association of State Foresters (NASF) releases data on land under wildland protection every several years. In 2011, NASF released these data for the year 2008, which affected the ratio of forest land to land under wildland protection for the years 2007 through 2009. For each of these three years, the updated ratio decreased the forest area burned estimates for the lower 48 states by around 15 percent. See the explanation in Annex 3.13 for more details on how the forestland to land under wildland protection ratio is used to calculate forest fire emissions.

In previous Inventory reports, the methodology has assumed that the C density of forest areas burned in wild and prescribed fires does not vary between years. This assumption has been in contrast to the forest C stock estimates, which are updated annually for all years based on data from the USDA Forest Service. The methodology adopted for the current and previous Inventory improves the C density factors by incorporating dynamic C density values based on the annual C pool data provided by the USDA Forest Service for the years 1990 to 2012. As a result of this update, estimates of total CO₂ and non-CO₂ emissions from forest fires increased by 1 percent for 1990 through 2010 as compared to the estimates included in the previous Inventory. However, estimates of total CO₂ and non-CO₂ emissions from forest fires decreased by 2 percent for 2011 as compared to the estimates included in the previous Inventory. For more information on how C density contributes to estimates of emissions from forest fires, see Annex 3.13.

Planned Improvements

The default combustion factor of 0.45 from IPCC (2006) was applied in estimating C emitted from both wildfires and prescribed fires. Additional research into the availability of a combustion factor specific to prescribed fires is being conducted.

Another area of improvement is to evaluate other methods of obtaining data on forest area burned by replacing ratios of forest land to land under wildland protection with Monitoring Trends in Burn Severity (MTBS) burn area data. MTBS data is available from 1984 to 2011. MTBS burn area data could be used to develop the national area burned and resulting CO₂ and non-CO₂ emissions. Additional research is required to determine appropriate uncertainty inputs for national area burned data derived from MTBS data.

Direct N₂O Fluxes from Forest Soils (IPCC Source Category 5A1)

Of the synthetic nitrogen (N) fertilizers applied to soils in the United States, no more than one percent is applied to forest soils. Application rates are similar to those occurring on cropped soils, but in any given year, only a small proportion of total forested land receives N fertilizer. This is because forests are typically fertilized only twice during their approximately 40-year growth cycle (once at planting and once approximately 20 years later). Thus, while the rate of N fertilizer application for the area of forests that receives N fertilizer in any given year is relatively high, the average annual application is quite low as inferred by dividing all forest land that may undergo N fertilization at some point during its growing cycle by the amount of N fertilizer added to these forests in a given year. Direct N₂O emissions from forest soils in 2012 were 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.2 Gg). Emissions have increased by 455 percent from 1990 to 2012 as a result of an increase in the area of N fertilized pine plantations in the southeastern United States and Douglas-fir timberland in western Washington and Oregon. Total forest soil N₂O emissions are summarized in Table 7-18.

Table 7-18: Direct N₂O Fluxes from Soils in *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg N₂O)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg
1990	0.1	0.2
2005	0.4	1.2
2008	0.4	1.2
2009	0.4	1.2
2010	0.4	1.2
2011	0.4	1.2
2012	0.4	1.2

Note: These estimates include direct N₂O emissions from N fertilizer additions only. Indirect N₂O emissions from fertilizer additions are reported in the Agriculture chapter. These estimates include emissions from both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and from *Land Converted to Forest Land*.

Methodology

The IPCC Tier 1 approach was used to estimate N₂O from soils within *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land*. According to U.S. Forest Service statistics for 1996 (USDA Forest Service 2001), approximately 75 percent of trees planted were for timber, and about 60 percent of national total harvested forest area is in the southeastern United States. Although southeastern pine plantations represent the majority of fertilized forests in the United States, this Inventory also accounted for N fertilizer application to commercial Douglas-fir stands in western Oregon and Washington. For the Southeast, estimates of direct N₂O emissions from fertilizer applications to forests were based on the area of pine plantations receiving fertilizer in the southeastern United States and estimated application rates (Albaugh et al. 2007; Fox et al. 2007). Not accounting for fertilizer applied to non-pine plantations is justified because fertilization is routine for pine forests but rare for hardwoods (Binkley et al. 1995). For each year, the area of pine receiving N fertilizer was multiplied by the weighted average of the reported range of N fertilization rates (121 lbs. N per acre). Area data for pine plantations receiving fertilizer in the Southeast were not available for 2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008, so data from 2004 were used for these years. For commercial forests in Oregon and Washington, only fertilizer applied to Douglas-fir was accounted for, because the vast majority (~95 percent) of the total fertilizer applied to forests in this region is applied to Douglas-fir (Briggs 2007). Estimates of total Douglas-fir area and the portion of fertilized area were multiplied to obtain annual area estimates of fertilized Douglas-fir stands. The annual area estimates were multiplied by the typical rate used in this region (200 lbs. N per acre) to estimate total N applied (Briggs 2007), and the total N applied to forests was multiplied by the IPCC (2006) default emission factor of 1 percent to estimate direct N₂O emissions. The volatilization and leaching/runoff N fractions for forest land, calculated according to the IPCC default factors of 10 percent and 30 percent, respectively, were included with the indirect emissions in the Agricultural Soil Management source category (consistent with reporting guidance that all indirect emissions are included in the Agricultural Soil Management source category).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The amount of N₂O emitted from forests depends not only on N inputs and fertilized area, but also on a large number of variables, including organic C availability, oxygen gas partial pressure, soil moisture content, pH, temperature, and tree planting/harvesting cycles. The effect of the combined interaction of these variables on N₂O flux is complex and highly uncertain. IPCC (2006) does not incorporate any of these variables into the default methodology, except variation in estimated fertilizer application rates and estimated areas of forested land receiving N fertilizer. All forest soils are treated equivalently under this methodology. Furthermore, only synthetic N fertilizers are captured, so applications of organic N fertilizers are not estimated. However, the total quantity of

organic N inputs to soils is included in the Agricultural Soil Management and *Settlements Remaining Settlements* sections.

Uncertainties exist in the fertilization rates, annual area of forest lands receiving fertilizer, and the emission factors. Fertilization rates were assigned a default level²²⁴ of uncertainty at ± 50 percent, and area receiving fertilizer was assigned a ± 20 percent according to expert knowledge (Binkley 2004). IPCC (2006) provided estimates for the uncertainty associated with direct N₂O emission factor for synthetic N fertilizer application to soils. Quantitative uncertainty of this source category was estimated through the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology. The uncertainty ranges around the 2005 activity data and emission factor input variables were directly applied to the 2012 emission estimates. The results of the quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-19. N₂O fluxes from soils were estimated to be between 0.1 and 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 59 percent below and 211 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-19: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates of N₂O Fluxes from Soils in *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission ^a Estimate			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land: N ₂ O Fluxes from Soils	N ₂ O	0.4	0.1	1.1	-59%	+211%

Note: This estimate includes direct N₂O emissions from N fertilizer additions to both *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and *Land Converted to Forest Land*.

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Planned Improvements

State-level area data will be obtained for southeastern pine plantations and northwestern Douglas-fir forests to estimate soil N₂O emission by state and provide information about regional variation in emission patterns.

7.3 Land Converted to Forest Land (IPCC Source Category 5A2)

Land-use change is constantly occurring, and areas under a number of differing land-use types are converted to forest each year, just as forest land is converted to other uses. While the magnitude of these changes is known (see Table 7-6), research is ongoing to track C across *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* and *Land Converted to Forest Land* areas. Until such time that reliable and comprehensive estimates of C across these land-use and land-use change categories can be produced, it is not possible to separate CO₂ or N₂O fluxes on *Land Converted to Forest Land* from fluxes on *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* at this time.

²²⁴ Uncertainty is unknown for the fertilization rates so a conservative value of $\pm 50\%$ was used in the analysis.

7.4 Cropland Remaining Cropland (IPCC Source Category 5B1)

Mineral and Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Soils contain both organic and inorganic forms of C, but soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks are the main source and sink for atmospheric CO₂ in most soils. Changes in inorganic C stocks are typically minor. In addition, SOC is the dominant organic C pool in cropland ecosystems, because biomass and dead organic matter have considerably less C and those pools are relatively ephemeral. IPCC (2006) recommends reporting changes in SOC stocks due to agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral and organic soils.²²⁵

Typical well-drained mineral soils contain from 1 to 6 percent organic C by weight, although mineral soils that are saturated with water for substantial periods during the year may contain significantly more C (NRCS 1999). Conversion of mineral soils from their native state to agricultural uses can cause as much as half of the SOC to be decomposed and the C lost to the atmosphere. The rate and ultimate magnitude of C loss will depend on pre-conversion conditions, conversion method and subsequent management practices, in addition to the climate and soil type. In the tropics, 40 to 60 percent of the C loss generally occurs within the first 10 years following conversion; C stocks continue to decline in subsequent decades but at a much slower rate. In temperate regions, C loss can continue for several decades, reducing stocks by 20 to 40 percent of native C levels. Eventually, the soil can reach a new equilibrium that reflects a balance between C inputs (e.g., decayed plant matter, roots, and organic amendments such as manure and crop residues) and C loss through microbial decomposition of organic matter. However, land use, management, and other conditions may change before the new equilibrium is reached. The quantity and quality of organic matter inputs and their rate of decomposition are determined by the combined interaction of climate, soil properties, and land use. Land use and agricultural practices, such as clearing, drainage, tillage, planting, grazing, crop residue management, fertilization, and flooding, can modify both organic matter inputs and decomposition, and thereby result in a net flux of C to or from the soil C pool.

Organic soils, also referred to as histosols, include all soils with more than 12 to 20 percent organic C by weight, depending on clay content (NRCS 1999, Brady and Weil 1999). The organic layer of these soils can be very deep (i.e., several meters), forming under inundated conditions in which minimal decomposition of plant residue occurs. When organic soils are prepared for crop production, they are drained and tilled, leading to aeration of the soil, which accelerates the rate of decomposition and CO₂ emissions. Because of the depth and richness of the organic layers, C loss from drained organic soils can continue over long periods of time. The rate of CO₂ emissions varies depending on climate and composition (i.e., decomposability) of the organic matter. Also, the use of organic soils for annual crop production leads to higher C loss rates than drainage of organic soils in grassland or forests, due to deeper drainage and more intensive management practices in cropland (IPCC/UNEP/OECD/IEA 1997). Carbon losses are estimated from drained organic soils under both grassland and cropland management in this Inventory.

Cropland Remaining Cropland includes all cropland in an inventory year that had been cropland for the last 20 years according to the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) land-use survey (USDA-NRCS 2009).²²⁶ The inventory includes all privately-owned croplands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii, but there is between 1 to 1.5 million hectares of *Cropland Remaining Cropland* on federal lands between 1990 and 2012 that is not currently included in the estimation of C stock changes (i.e., less than 1 percent of the total cropland area in the United States). In addition, there is a relatively small amount of cropland in Alaska, about 28,700 hectares, which is not included in the inventory. This leads to a discrepancy between the total amount of managed area in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (see Section 7.1) and the cropland area included in the Inventory. Improvements are underway to include federal croplands in future C inventories, in addition to the cropland in Alaska.

²²⁵ CO₂ emissions associated with liming are also estimated but are included in a separate section of the report.

²²⁶ NRI points were classified according to land-use history records starting in 1982 when the NRI survey began, and consequently the classifications were based on less than 20 years from 1990 to 2001.

The area of *Cropland Remaining Cropland* changes through time as land is converted to or from cropland management. CO₂ emissions and removals²²⁷ due to changes in mineral soil C stocks are estimated using a Tier 3 approach for the majority of annual crops. A Tier 2 IPCC method is used for the remaining crops (vegetables, tobacco, perennial/horticultural crops, and rice) not included in the Tier 3 method. In addition, a Tier 2 method is used for very gravelly, cobbly, or shaley soils (i.e., classified as soils that have greater than 35 percent of soil volume comprised of gravel, cobbles, or shale) and for additional changes in mineral soil C stocks that were not addressed with the Tier 3 approach (i.e., change in C stocks after 2007 due to Conservation Reserve Program enrollment). Emissions from organic soils are estimated using a Tier 2 IPCC method.

Of the two sub-source categories, land-use and land management of mineral soils was the most important component of total net C stock change; especially in the early part of the time series (see Table 7-20 and Table 7-21). (Note: Estimates after 2007 are based on NRI data from 2007 and therefore do not fully reflect changes occurring in the latter part of the time series. In 2012, mineral soils were estimated to remove 48.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (13.3 Tg C). This rate of C storage in mineral soils represented about a 36 percent decrease in the rate since the initial reporting year of 1990. Emissions from organic soils were 22.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.0 Tg C) in 2012, which decreased by 8% compared to the emissions in 1990. In total, United States agricultural soils in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* sequestered approximately 26.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (7.2 Tg C) in 2012.

Table 7-20: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Soil Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Mineral Soils	(75.9)	(51.5)	(52.0)	(51.4)	(49.8)	(49.7)	(48.6)
Organic Soils	24.0	22.4	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1
Total Net Flux	(51.9)	(29.1)	(29.8)	(29.2)	(27.6)	(27.5)	(26.5)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Note: Estimates after 2007 are based on NRI data from 2007 and therefore do not fully reflect changes occurring in the latter part of the time series.

Table 7-21: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (Tg C)

Soil Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Mineral Soils	(20.7)	(14.1)	(14.2)	(14.0)	(13.6)	(13.5)	(13.3)
Organic Soils	6.5	6.1	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
Total Net Flux	(14.2)	(7.9)	(8.1)	(8.0)	(7.5)	(7.5)	(7.2)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Note: Estimates after 2007 are based on NRI data from 2007 and therefore do not fully reflect changes occurring in the latter part of the time series.

The net reduction in soil C accumulation over the time series (49 percent lower for 2012, relative to 1990) was largely due to the declining influence of annual cropland enrolled in the Conservation Reserve Program, which began in the late 1980s. In addition, over 2 million hectares of land was returned to production from the Conservation Reserve Program during the last 5 years, leading to a reduction in soil C stocks. However, there were still positive increases in C stocks from the nearly 12 million hectares of land enrolled in this reserve program, as well as from intensification of crop production by limiting the use of bare-summer fallow in semi-arid regions, increased hay production, and adoption of conservation tillage (i.e., reduced- and no-till practices).

The spatial variability in the 2012 annual CO₂ flux is displayed in Figure 7-5 and Figure 7-6 for C stock changes in mineral and organic soils, respectively. The highest rates of net C accumulation in mineral soils occurred in the Midwest, which is the area with the largest amounts of cropland managed with conservation tillage, followed by the south-central and northwest regions of the United States. Emissions from organic soils were highest in Southeastern Coastal Region (particularly Florida), upper Midwest and Northeast surrounding the Great Lakes, and the Pacific

²²⁷ Note that removals occur through crop and forage uptake of CO₂ into biomass C that is later incorporated into soil pools.

Coast (particularly California), coinciding with largest concentrations of organic soils in the United States that are used for agricultural production.

Figure 7-5: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2012, Cropland Remaining Cropland

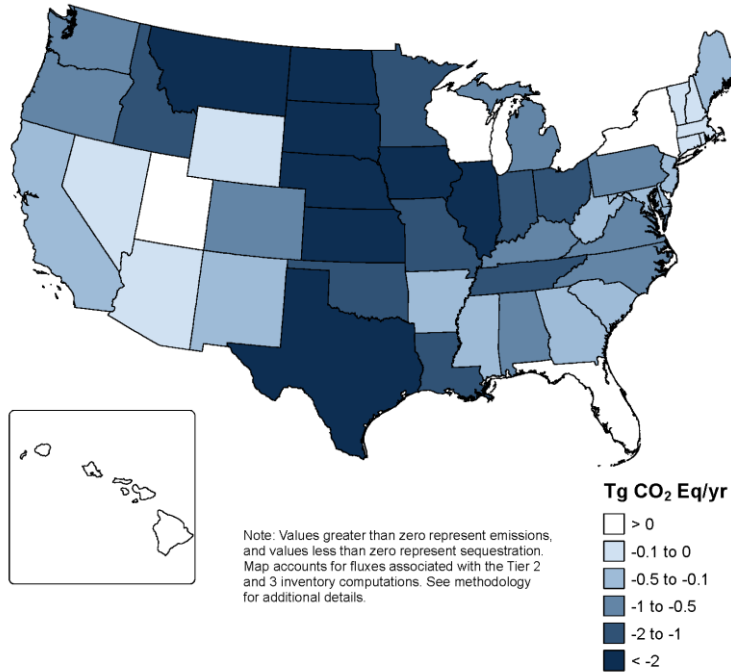
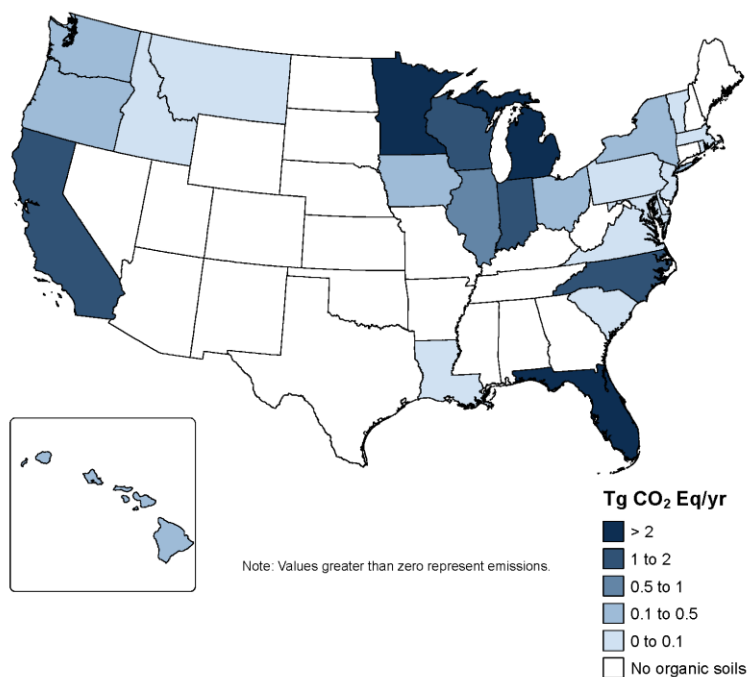


Figure 7-6: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2012, *Cropland Remaining Cropland*



Methodology

The following section includes a description of the methodology used to estimate changes in soil C stocks due to: (1) agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils; and (2) agricultural land-use and management activities on organic soils for *Cropland Remaining Cropland*.

Soil C stock changes were estimated for *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (as well as agricultural land falling into the IPCC categories *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, and *Land Converted to Grassland*) according to land-use histories recorded in the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) survey (USDA-NRCS 2009). The NRI is a statistically-based sample of all non-federal land, and includes approximately 529,558 points in agricultural land for the conterminous United States and Hawaii.²²⁸ Each point is associated with an “expansion factor” that allows scaling of C stock changes from NRI points to the entire country (i.e., each expansion factor represents the amount of area with the same land-use/management history as the sample point). Land-use and some management information (e.g., crop type, soil attributes, and irrigation) were originally collected for each NRI point on a 5-year cycle beginning in 1982. For cropland, data were collected for 4 out of 5 years in the cycle (i.e., 1979-1982, 1984-1987, 1989-1992, and 1994-1997). In 1998, the NRI program began collecting annual data, and data are currently available through 2007. NRI points were classified as *Cropland Remaining Cropland* in a given year between 1990 and 2007 if the land use had been cropland for 20 years.²²⁹ Cropland includes all land used to produce food and fiber, or forage that is harvested and used as feed (e.g., hay and silage), in addition to cropland that has been enrolled in the Conservation Reserve Program (i.e., considered reserve cropland).

²²⁸ NRI points were classified as agricultural if under grassland or cropland management between 1990 and 2007.

²²⁹ NRI points were classified according to land-use history records starting in 1982 when the NRI survey began. Therefore, the classification prior to 2002 was based on less than 20 years of recorded land-use history for the time series.

Mineral Soil Carbon Stock Changes

An IPCC Tier 3 model-based approach (Ogle et al. 2010) was applied to estimate C stock changes for mineral soils used to produce a majority of annual crops in the United States in terms of land area, including alfalfa hay, barley, corn, cotton, dry beans, grass hay, grass-clover hay, oats, onions, peanuts, potatoes, rice, sorghum, soybeans, sugar beets, sunflowers, tomatoes, and wheat. The model-based approach uses the DAYCENT biogeochemical model (Parton et al. 1998; Del Grosso et al. 2001, 2011) to estimate soil C stock changes and soil nitrous oxide emissions from agricultural soil management. Carbon and N dynamics are linked in plant-soil systems through biogeochemical processes of microbial decomposition and plant production (McGill and Cole 1981). Coupling the two source categories (i.e., agricultural soil C and N₂O) in a single inventory analysis ensures that there is a consistent treatment of the processes and interactions between C and N cycling in soils.

The remaining crops on mineral soils were estimated using an IPCC Tier 2 method (Ogle et al. 2003), including some vegetables, tobacco, perennial/horticultural crops, and crops that are rotated with these crops. The Tier 2 method was also used for very gravelly, cobbly, or shaley soils (greater than 35 percent by volume). Mineral SOC stocks were estimated using a Tier 2 method for these areas because the DAYCENT model, which is used for the Tier 3 method, has not been fully tested for estimating C stock changes associated with these crops and rotations, as well as cobbly, gravelly, or shaley soils. An additional stock change calculation was estimated for mineral soils using Tier 2 emission factors to account for enrollment patterns in the Conservation Reserve Program after 2007, which was not addressed by the Tier 3 method.

Further elaboration on the methodology and data used to estimate stock changes from mineral soils are described below and in Annex 3.12.

Tier 3 Approach

Mineral SOC stocks and stock changes were estimated using the DAYCENT biogeochemical model (Parton et al. 1998; Del Grosso et al. 2001, 2011), which simulates cycling of C, N and other nutrients in cropland, grassland, forest, and savanna ecosystems. The DAYCENT model utilizes the soil C modeling framework developed in the Century model (Parton et al. 1987, 1988, 1994; Metherell et al. 1993), but has been refined to simulate dynamics at a daily time-step. Crop production is simulated with NASA-CASA production algorithm (Potter et al. 1993, Potter et al. 2007) using the MODIS Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI) products, MOD13Q1 and MYD13Q1, with a pixel resolution of 250m. A prediction algorithm was developed to estimate EVI (Gurung et al. 2009) for gap-filling during years over the inventory time series when EVI data were not available (e.g., data from the MODIS sensor were only available after 2000 following the launch of the Aqua and Terra Satellites). The modeling approach uses daily weather data as an input, along with information about soil physical properties. Input data on land use and management are specified at a daily resolution and include land-use type, crop/forage type, and management activities (e.g., planting, harvesting, fertilization, manure amendments, tillage, irrigation, residue removal, grazing, and fire). The model simulates net primary productivity and C additions to soil, soil temperature, and water dynamics, in addition to turnover, stabilization, and mineralization of soil organic matter C and nutrients (N, P, K, S). This method is more accurate than the Tier 1 and 2 approaches provided by the IPCC because the simulation model treats changes as continuous over time rather than the simplified discrete changes represented in the default method (see Box 7-4 for additional information).

Box 7-4: Tier 3 Approach for Soil C Stocks Compared to Tier 1 or 2 Approaches

A Tier 3 model-based approach is used to estimate soil C stock changes on the majority of agricultural land with mineral soils. This approach entails several fundamental differences compared to the IPCC Tier 1 or 2 methods, which classify land areas into a number of discrete categories based on highly aggregated information on about climate, soil, and management (i.e., only six climate regions, seven soil types and eleven management systems occur in U.S. agricultural land under the IPCC classification). Input variables to the Tier 3 model, including climate, soils, and management activities (e.g., fertilization, crop species, tillage, etc.), are represented in considerably more detail both temporally and spatially, and exhibit multi-dimensional interactions through the more complex model structure compared with the IPCC Tier 1 or 2 approach. The spatial resolution of the analysis is also finer in the Tier 3 method compared to the lower tier methods as implemented in the United States for previous Inventories (e.g.,

almost 400,000 individual NRI point locations in individual fields compared to data aggregated to 181 Major Land Resource Areas (MLRAs) for Tier 1 and 2 analyses).

The Tier 3 model simulates a continuous time period rather than the equilibrium step change used in the IPCC methodology (Tier 1 and 2). More specifically, the DAYCENT model (i.e., daily time-step version of the Century model) simulates soil C dynamics (and CO₂ emissions and uptake) on a daily time step based on C emissions and removals resulting from plant production and decomposition processes. The changes in soil C stocks are influenced by not only changes in land use and management but also weather variability and secondary feedbacks between management activities, climate, and soils, as they affect primary production and decomposition. This latter characteristic constitutes one of the greatest differences between the methods, and forms the basis for a more complete accounting of soil C stock changes in the Tier 3 approach compared with Tier 2 methodology. Consequently, variable weather patterns and other environmental constraints that interact with land use and management can affect the time frame over which stock changes occur in response to management decisions.

Historical land-use patterns are simulated with DAYCENT based on the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) survey, in addition to information on irrigation. Additional sources of activity data were used to supplement the land-use information from NRI. The Conservation Technology Information Center (CTIC 2004) provided annual data on tillage activity at the county level since 1989, with adjustments for long-term adoption of no-till agriculture (Towery 2001). Information on fertilizer use and rates by crop type for different regions of the United States were obtained primarily from the USDA Economic Research Service Cropping Practices Survey (USDA-ERS 1997, 2011) with additional data from other sources, including the National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS 1992, 1999, 2004). Frequency and rates of manure application to cropland during 1997 were estimated from data compiled by the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service (Edmonds et al. 2003), and then adjusted using county-level estimates of manure available for application in other years. Specifically, county-scale ratios of manure available for application to soils in other years relative to 1997 were used to adjust the area amended with manure (see Annex 3.12 for further details). Greater availability of managed manure N relative to 1997 was, thus, assumed to increase the area amended with manure, while reduced availability of manure N relative to 1997 was assumed to reduce the amended area. Data on the county-level N available for application were estimated for managed systems based on the total amount of N excreted in manure minus N losses during storage and transport, and including the addition of N from bedding materials. Nitrogen losses include direct N₂O emissions, volatilization of ammonia and NO_x, runoff and leaching, and poultry manure used as a feed supplement. For unmanaged systems, it is assumed that no N losses or additions occur prior to the application of manure to the soil. More information on livestock manure production is available in the Manure Management, Section 6.2, and Annex 3.11.

Daily weather data were used as an input in the model simulations based on gridded data at a 32 km scale from the North America Regional Reanalysis Product (NARR) (Mesinger et al. 2006). Soil attributes were obtained from the Soil Survey Geographic Database (SSURGO) (Soil Survey Staff 2011). The carbon dynamics at each NRI point was simulated 100 times as part of the uncertainty analysis, yielding a total of over 18 million simulation runs for the analysis. Uncertainty in the carbon stock estimates from DAYCENT associated with parameterization and model algorithms were adjusted using a structural uncertainty estimator accounting for uncertainty in model algorithms and parameter values (Ogle et al. 2007, 2010). Carbon stocks and 95 percent confidence intervals were estimated for each year between 1990 and 2007, but C stock changes from 2008 to 2012 were assumed to be similar to 2007 because no additional activity data are currently available from the NRI for the latter years.

Tier 2 Approach

In the IPCC Tier 2 method, data on climate, soil types, land-use, and land management activity were used to classify land area and apply appropriate stock change factors. Major Land Resource Areas (MLRAs) formed the base spatial unit for conducting the Tier 2 analysis. MLRAs represent a geographic unit with relatively similar soils, climate, water resources, and land uses (NRCS 1981). MLRAs were classified into climate regions according to the IPCC categories using the PRISM climate database of Daly et al. (1994), and the factors were assigned based on the land management systems in the MLRA in addition to the climate and soil types.

Reference C stocks were estimated using the National Soil Survey Characterization Database (NRCS 1997) with cultivated cropland as the reference condition, rather than native vegetation as used in IPCC (2003, 2006). Changing the reference condition was necessary because soil measurements under agricultural management are

much more common and easily identified in the National Soil Survey Characterization Database (NRCS 1997) than native reference conditions.

U.S.-specific stock change factors were derived from published literature to determine the impact of management practices on SOC storage, including changes in tillage, cropping rotations and intensification, and land-use change between cultivated and uncultivated conditions (Ogle et al. 2003, Ogle et al. 2006). U.S. factors associated with organic matter amendments were not estimated because there were an insufficient number of studies in the United States to analyze the impacts. Instead, factors from IPCC (2003) were used to estimate the effect of those activities.

Activity data were primarily based on the historical land-use/management patterns recorded in the NRI. Each NRI point was classified by land use, soil type, climate region (using PRISM data, Daly et al. 1994) and management condition. Classification of cropland area by tillage practice was based on data from the Conservation Technology Information Center (CTIC 2004, Towery 2001) as described above. Activity data on wetland restoration of Conservation Reserve Program land were obtained from Euliss and Gleason (2002). Manure N amendments over the inventory time period were based on application rates and areas amended with manure N from Edmonds et al. (2003), in addition to the managed manure production data discussed in the methodology subsection for the Tier 3 analysis.

Combining information from these data sources, SOC stocks for mineral soils were estimated 50,000 times for 1982, 1992, 1997, 2002 and 2007, using a Monte Carlo stochastic simulation approach and probability distribution functions for U.S.-specific stock change factors, reference C stocks, and land-use activity data (Ogle et al. 2002, Ogle et al. 2003, Ogle et al. 2006). The annual C flux for 1990 through 1992 was determined by calculating the average annual change in stocks between 1982 and 1992; annual C flux for 1993 through 1997 was determined by calculating the average annual change in stocks between 1992 and 1997; annual C flux for 1998 through 2002 was determined by calculating the average annual change in stocks between 1998 and 2002; and annual C flux from 2003 through 2012 was determined by calculating the average annual change in stocks between 2003 and 2007.

Additional Mineral C Stock Change

Annual C flux estimates for mineral soils between 2008 and 2012 were adjusted to account for additional C stock changes associated with gains or losses in soil C after 2007 due to changes in Conservation Reserve Program enrollment. The change in enrollment relative to 2007 was based on data from USDA-FSA (2012) for 2008 through 2012. The differences in mineral soil areas were multiplied by 0.5 metric tons C per hectare per year to estimate the net effect on soil C stocks. The stock change rate is based on country-specific factors and the IPCC default method (see Annex 3.11 for further discussion).

Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Annual C emissions from drained organic soils in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* were estimated using the Tier 2 method provided in IPCC (2003, 2006), with U.S.-specific C loss rates (Ogle et al. 2003) rather than default IPCC rates. The final estimates included a measure of uncertainty as determined from the Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation with 50,000 iterations. Emissions were based on the annual data from 1990 to 2007 for *Cropland Remaining Cropland* areas in the 2007 *National Resources Inventory* (USDA-NRCS 2009). The annual emissions estimated for 2007 were applied to 2007 through 2012 because no additional data were available beyond 2007.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty associated with the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* land-use category was addressed for changes in agricultural soil C stocks (including both mineral and organic soils). Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-22 for each subsource (mineral soil C stocks and organic soil C stocks) and method that was used in the inventory analysis (i.e., Tier 2 and Tier 3). Uncertainty for the portions of the Inventory estimated with Tier 2 and 3 approaches was derived using a Monte Carlo approach (see Annex 3.12 for further discussion). Uncertainty estimates from each approach were combined using the error propagation equation in accordance with IPCC (2006). The combined uncertainty was calculated by taking the square root of the sum of the squares of the standard deviations of the uncertain quantities. The combined uncertainty for soil C stocks in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* ranged from 165 percent below to 167 percent above the 2012 stock change estimate of -26.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-22: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Soil C Stock Changes occurring within Cropland Remaining Cropland (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2012 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate ^a			
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Cropland Remaining Cropland, Tier 3 Inventory Methodology	(50.6)	(93.4)	(7.8)	-85%	85%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Cropland Remaining Cropland, Tier 2 Inventory Methodology	(2.8)	(5.1)	(0.9)	-80%	68%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Cropland Remaining Cropland (Change in CRP enrollment relative to 2003)	4.8	2.4	7.2	-50%	50%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Cropland Remaining Cropland, Tier 2 Inventory Methodology	22.1	14.0	32.5	-37%	47%
Combined Uncertainty for Flux associated with Agricultural Soil Carbon Stock Change in Cropland Remaining Cropland	(26.5)	(70.2)	17.7	-165%	167%

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Uncertainty is also associated with lack of reporting of agricultural biomass and litter C stock changes. Biomass C stock changes are likely minor in perennial crops, such as orchards and nut plantations, given the small amount of change in land used to produce these commodities in the United States. In contrast, agroforestry practices, such as shelterbelts, riparian forests and intercropping with trees, may have led to significant changes in biomass C stocks, at least in some regions of the United States, but there are currently no datasets to evaluate the trends. Changes in litter C stocks are also assumed to be negligible in croplands over annual time frames, although there are certainly significant changes at sub-annual time scales across seasons. However, this trend may change in the future, particularly if crop residue becomes a viable feedstock for bioenergy production.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Methodological recalculations in the current Inventory were associated with the following improvements: 1) refining the temperature algorithm that is used for simulating crop production and carbon inputs to the soil in the DAYCENT biogeochemical model; 2) increasing the number of experimental sites that are used to evaluate the structural uncertainty in the DAYCENT model; and 3) recalculation of Tier 2 organic soil C emissions using annual data from the NRI rather than estimating emissions every 5 years and assuming the emissions remain constant between the years. The change in SOC stocks increased by an average of 12.1 Tg CO₂ eq. over the time series as a result of these improvements to the Inventory. The increase was largely due to refinement of the temperature algorithm and changes in the C inputs to the soil pool.

QA/QC and Verification

Quality control measures included checking input data, model scripts, and results to ensure data were properly handled throughout the inventory process. Inventory reporting forms and text were reviewed and revised as needed to correct transcription errors. As discussed in the uncertainty section, results were compared to field measurements, and a statistical relationship was developed to assess uncertainties in the model's predictive capability. The comparisons included over 45 long-term experiments, representing about 800 combinations of management treatments across all of the sites (Ogle et al. 2007) (See Annex 3.12 for more information).

Planned Improvements

Two major planned improvements are underway. The first is to update the time series of land use and management data from the USDA National Resources Inventory so that it is extended from 2008 through 2010 for both the Tier 2 and 3 methods. Fertilization and tillage activity data will also be updated as part of this improvement. The remote-sensing based data on the Enhanced Vegetation Index will be extended through 2010 in order to use the EVI data to drive crop production in DAYCENT. Overall, this improvement will extend the time series of activity data for the Tier 2 and 3 analyses through 2010.

The second major planned improvement is to analyze C stock changes on federal lands and Alaska for cropland and managed grassland, using the Tier 2 method for mineral and organic soils that is described earlier in this section. This analysis will initially focus on land use change, which typically has a larger impact on soil C stock changes, but will be further refined over time to incorporate more of the management data.

Other improvements are planned for the DAYCENT biogeochemical model. Specifically, crop parameters associated with temperature effects on plant production will be further improved in DAYCENT with additional model calibration. Senescence events following grain filling in crops, such as wheat, will also be further evaluated and refined as needed.

An improvement is also underway to simulate crop residue burning in the DAYCENT based on the amount of crop residues burned according to the data that is used in the Field Burning of Agricultural Residues source category (Section 6.5). This improvement will more accurately represent the C inputs to the soil that are associated with residue burning.

All of these improvements are expected to be completed for the 1990 through 2013 Inventory. However, the time line may be extended if there are insufficient resources to fund all or part of these planned improvements.

CO₂ Emissions from Agricultural Liming

IPCC (2006) recommends reporting CO₂ emissions from lime additions (in the form of crushed limestone (CaCO₃) and dolomite (CaMg(CO₃)₂) to agricultural soils. Limestone and dolomite are added by land managers to increase soil pH or reduce acidification. When these compounds come in contact with acid soils, they degrade, thereby generating CO₂. The rate and ultimate magnitude of degradation of applied limestone and dolomite depends on the soil conditions, soil type, climate regime, and the type of mineral applied. Emissions from liming have fluctuated over the past twenty-two years, ranging from 3.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. to 5.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. In 2012, liming of agricultural soils in the United States resulted in emissions of 3.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.1 Tg C), representing about a 16 percent decrease in emissions since 1990 (see Table 7-23 and Table 7-24). The trend is driven entirely by the amount of lime and dolomite estimated to have been applied to soils over the time period.

Table 7-23: Emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Limestone	4.1	3.9	4.4	3.4	4.3	3.4	3.5
Dolomite	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4
Total^a	4.7	4.3	5.0	3.7	4.8	3.9	3.9

^a Also includes emissions from liming on *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements* as it is not currently possible to apportion the data by land use category.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 7-24: Emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils (Tg C)

Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Limestone	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.9	1.2	0.9	1.0
Dolomite	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

Total^a	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.1
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^a Also includes emissions from liming on *Land Converted to Cropland, Grassland Remaining Grassland, Land Converted to Grassland, and Settlements Remaining Settlements* as it is not currently possible to apportion the data by land use category.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

CO₂ emissions from degradation of limestone and dolomite applied to agricultural soils were estimated using a Tier 2 methodology consistent with IPCC (2006). The annual amounts of limestone and dolomite applied (see Table 7-25) were multiplied by CO₂ emission factors from West and McBride (2005). These emission factors (0.059 metric ton C/metric ton limestone, 0.064 metric ton C/metric ton dolomite) are lower than the IPCC default emission factors because they account for the portion of agricultural lime that may leach through the soil and travel by rivers to the ocean (West and McBride 2005). This analysis of lime dissolution is based on liming occurring in the Mississippi River basin, where the vast majority of all U.S. liming takes place (West 2008). U.S. liming that does not occur in the Mississippi River basin tends to occur under similar soil and rainfall regimes, and, thus, the emission factor is appropriate for use across the United States (West 2008). The annual application rates of limestone and dolomite were derived from estimates and industry statistics provided in the *Minerals Yearbook* and *Mineral Industry Surveys* (Tepordei 1993 through 2006; Willett 2007a, b, 2009 through 2013a; USGS 2008 through 2013). To develop these data, the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS; U.S. Bureau of Mines prior to 1997) obtained production and use information by surveying crushed stone manufacturers. Because some manufacturers were reluctant to provide information, the estimates of total crushed limestone and dolomite production and use were divided into three components: (1) production by end-use, as reported by manufacturers (i.e., “specified” production); (2) production reported by manufacturers without end-uses specified (i.e., “unspecified” production); and (3) estimated additional production by manufacturers who did not respond to the survey (i.e., “estimated” production).

Box 7-5: Comparison of the Tier 2 U.S. Inventory Approach and IPCC (2006) Default Approach

Emissions from agricultural liming were estimated using a Tier 2 methodology based on liming emission factors specific to the United States that are consistent with IPCC (2006) emission default factors, but are specific to U.S. soil conditions under which liming occurs. For example, as described previously, most liming in the United States occurs in the Mississippi River basin, or in areas that have similar soil and rainfall regimes as the Mississippi River basin. Under such soil conditions, a significant portion of dissolved agricultural lime is predicted to leach through the soil and travels by rivers to the ocean, the majority of which is then predicted to precipitate in the ocean as CaCO₃ (West and McBride, 2005). Therefore, the U.S. specific emissions factors (0.059 metric ton C/metric ton limestone and 0.064 metric ton C/metric ton dolomite) are about half of the IPCC (2006) emission factors (0.12 metric ton C/metric ton limestone and 0.13 metric ton C/metric ton dolomite). For comparison, the 2012 U.S. emissions from liming of agricultural soils are 3.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. using the U.S.-specific West and McBride (2005) emission factors and 8.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. using the IPCC (2006) emission factors.

The “unspecified” and “estimated” amounts of crushed limestone and dolomite applied to agricultural soils were calculated by multiplying the percentage of total “specified” limestone and dolomite production applied to agricultural soils by the total amounts of “unspecified” and “estimated” limestone and dolomite production. In other words, the proportion of total “unspecified” and “estimated” crushed limestone and dolomite that was applied to agricultural soils (as opposed to other uses of the stone) was assumed to be proportionate to the amount of “specified” crushed limestone and dolomite that was applied to agricultural soils. In addition, data were not available for 1990, 1992, and 2012 on the fractions of total crushed stone production that were limestone and dolomite, and on the fractions of limestone and dolomite production that were applied to soils. To estimate the 1990 and 1992 data, a set of average fractions were calculated using the 1991 and 1993 data. These average fractions were applied to the quantity of “total crushed stone produced or used” reported for 1990 and 1992 in the 1994 *Minerals Yearbook* (Tepordei 1996). To estimate 2012 data, 2011 fractions were applied to a 2012 estimate of total crushed stone presented in the USGS *Mineral Industry Surveys: Crushed Stone and Sand and Gravel in the First*

Quarter of 2012 (USGS 2012); thus, the 2012 data in Table 7-23 through Table 7-25 are shaded to indicate that they are based on a combination of data and projections.

The primary source for limestone and dolomite activity data is the *Minerals Yearbook*, published by the Bureau of Mines through 1994 and by the USGS from 1995 to the present. In 1994, the “Crushed Stone” chapter in the *Minerals Yearbook* began rounding (to the nearest thousand metric tons) quantities for total crushed stone produced or used. It then reported revised (rounded) quantities for each of the years from 1990 to 1993. In order to minimize the inconsistencies in the activity data, these revised production numbers have been used in all of the subsequent calculations. Since limestone and dolomite activity data are also available at the state level, the national-level estimates reported here were broken out by state, although state-level estimates are not reported here. Also, it is important to note that all emissions from liming are accounted for under *Cropland Remaining Cropland* because it is not currently possible to apportion the data to each agricultural land use category (i.e., *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements*). The majority of liming in the United States occurs on *Cropland Remaining Cropland*.

Table 7-25: Applied Minerals (Million Metric Tons)

Mineral	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Limestone ^a	19.0	18.1	20.5	15.7	20.0	15.9	16.1
Dolomite ^a	2.4	1.9	2.6	1.2	1.9	1.9	1.9

^a Data represent amounts applied to *Cropland Remaining Cropland*, *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements* as it is not currently possible to apportion the data by land use category.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty regarding limestone and dolomite activity data inputs was estimated at ± 15 percent and assumed to be uniformly distributed around the inventory estimate (Tepordei 2003b, Willett 2013b). Analysis of the uncertainty associated with the emission factors included the following: the fraction of agricultural lime dissolved by nitric acid versus the fraction that reacts with carbonic acid, and the portion of bicarbonate that leaches through the soil and is transported to the ocean. Uncertainty regarding the time associated with leaching and transport was not accounted for, but should not change the uncertainty associated with CO₂ emissions (West 2005). The uncertainties associated with the fraction of agricultural lime dissolved by nitric acid and the portion of bicarbonate that leaches through the soil were each modeled as a smoothed triangular distribution between ranges of zero percent to 100 percent. The uncertainty surrounding these two components largely drives the overall uncertainty estimates reported below. More information on the uncertainty estimates for Liming of Agricultural Soils is contained within the Uncertainty Annex.

A Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was applied to estimate the uncertainty of CO₂ emissions from liming. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-26. Carbon dioxide emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils in 2012 were estimated to be between 0.15 and 8.12 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 96 percent below to 106 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 3.94 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-26: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Liming of Agricultural Soils (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Liming of Agricultural Soils ^b	CO ₂	3.94	0.15	8.12	-96%	+106%

^aRange of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

^b Also includes emissions from liming on *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements* as it is not currently possible to apportion the data by land use category.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for Liming was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures focused on comparing the magnitude of emission factors historically to attempt to identify any outliers or inconsistencies. No problems were found.

Recalculations Discussion

Several adjustments were made in the current Inventory to improve the results. The quantity of applied minerals reported in the previous Inventory for 2010 has been revised; the updated activity data for 2010 for limestone are approximately 29 thousand metric tons less and the 2010 data for dolomite are approximately 433 thousand metric tons greater than the data used for the previous Inventory. Consequently, the reported emissions resulting from liming in 2010 increased by about 2 percent. In the previous Inventory, to estimate 2011 data, 2010 fractions were applied to a 2011 estimate of total crushed stone presented in the USGS *Mineral Industry Surveys: Crushed Stone and Sand and Gravel in the First Quarter of 2011* (USGS 2011). Since publication of the previous Inventory, the *Minerals Yearbook* has published actual quantities of crushed stone sold or used by producers in the United States in 2011. These values have replaced those used in the previous Inventory to calculate the quantity of minerals applied to soil and the emissions from liming. The updated activity data for 2011 are approximately 2,732 thousand metric tons less than the data used in the previous Inventory. As a result, the reported emissions from liming for 2011 decreased by about 13 percent.

CO₂ Emissions from Urea Fertilization

The use of urea (CO(NH₂)₂) as fertilizer leads to emissions of CO₂ that was fixed during the industrial production process. Urea in the presence of water and urease enzymes is converted into ammonium (NH₄⁺), hydroxyl ion (OH⁻), and bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻). The bicarbonate then evolves into CO₂ and water. Emissions from urea fertilization in the United States totaled 3.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.9 Tg C) in 2012 (Table 7-27 and Table 7-28). Emissions from urea fertilization have grown 42 percent between 1990 and 2012, due to an increase in the use of urea as fertilizer.

Table 7-27: CO₂ Emissions from Urea Fertilization in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Urea Fertilization ^a	2.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.8	4.0	3.4

^a Also includes emissions from urea fertilization on *Land Converted to Cropland*, *Grassland Remaining Grassland*, *Land Converted to Grassland*, *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* because it is not currently possible to apportion the data by land use category.

Table 7-28: CO₂ Emissions from Urea Fertilization in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* (Tg C)

Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Urea Fertilization ^a	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.9

^a Also includes emissions from urea fertilization on *Land Converted to Cropland, Grassland Remaining Grassland, Land Converted to Grassland, Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* because it is not currently possible to apportion the data by land use category.

Methodology

Carbon dioxide emissions from the application of urea to agricultural soils were estimated using the IPCC (2006) Tier 1 methodology. The annual amounts of urea fertilizer applied (see Table 7-29) were derived from state-level fertilizer sales data provided in *Commercial Fertilizers* (TVA 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994; AAPFCO 1995 through 2013) and were multiplied by the default IPCC (2006) emission factor of 0.20 metric ton of C per metric ton of urea, which is equal to the C content of urea on an atomic weight basis. Because fertilizer sales data are reported in fertilizer years (July through June), a calculation was performed to convert the data to calendar years (January through December). According to historic monthly fertilizer use data (TVA 1992b), 65 percent of total fertilizer used in any fertilizer year is applied between January and June of that calendar year, and 35 percent of total fertilizer used in any fertilizer year is applied between July and December of the previous calendar year. Fertilizer sales data for the 2012 fertilizer year were not available in time for publication. Accordingly, urea application in the 2012 fertilizer year was estimated using a linear, least squares trend of consumption over the previous five years (2007 through 2011). A trend of five years was chosen as opposed to a longer trend because it best represented inter-state and inter-annual variability in consumption. For states where the trend projected negative urea application, the 2011 urea application was used. This applied only to West Virginia. Since 2013 fertilizer year data were not available, July through December 2012 fertilizer consumption was estimated by calculating the percent change in urea use from January through June 2011 to January through June 2012. This percent change was then multiplied by the July through December 2011 data to estimate July through December 2012 fertilizer use; thus, the 2011 and 2012 data in Table 7-27 through Table 7-29 are shaded to indicate that they are based on a combination of data and projections. State-level estimates of CO₂ emissions from the application of urea to agricultural soils were summed to estimate total emissions for the entire United States. Since urea activity data are also available at the state level, the national-level estimates reported here were broken out by state, although state-level estimates are not reported here. Also, it is important to note that all emissions from urea fertilization are accounted for under *Cropland Remaining Cropland* because it is not currently possible to apportion the data to each agricultural land use category (i.e., *Cropland Remaining Cropland, Land Converted to Cropland, Grassland Remaining Grassland, Land Converted to Grassland*, and *Settlements Remaining Settlements*). The majority of urea fertilization in the United States occurs on *Cropland Remaining Cropland*.

Table 7-29: Applied Urea (Million Metric Tons)

	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Urea Fertilizer ¹	3.3	4.8	4.9	4.8	5.2	5.4	4.7

¹These numbers represent amounts applied to all agricultural land, including *Land Converted to Cropland, Grassland Remaining Grassland, Land Converted to Grassland, Settlements Remaining Settlements*, and *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* because it is not currently possible to apportion the data by land use category.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-30 for Urea Fertilization. A Tier 2 Monte Carlo analysis was completed. The largest source of uncertainty was the default emission factor, which assumes that 100 percent of the C in CO(NH₂)₂ applied to soils is ultimately emitted into the environment as CO₂. This factor does not incorporate the possibility that some of the C may be retained in the soil. The emission estimate is, therefore, likely to be high. In addition, each urea consumption data point has an associated uncertainty. Urea for non-fertilizer use, such as aircraft deicing, may be included in consumption totals; it was determined through personal communication with Fertilizer Regulatory Program Coordinator David L. Terry (2007), however, that this amount is most likely very

small. Research into aircraft deicing practices also confirmed that urea is used minimally in the industry; a 1992 survey found a known annual usage of approximately 2,000 tons of urea for deicing; this would constitute 0.06 percent of the 1992 consumption of urea (EPA 2000). Similarly, surveys conducted from 2002 to 2005 indicate that total urea use for deicing at U.S. airports is estimated to be 3,740 MT per year, or less than 0.07 percent of the fertilizer total for 2007 (Itle 2009). Lastly, there is uncertainty surrounding the assumptions behind the calculation that converts fertilizer years to calendar years. Carbon dioxide emissions from urea fertilization of agricultural soils in 2012 were estimated to be between 2.0 and 3.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 43 percent below to 3 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 3.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-30: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from Urea Fertilization (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
Urea Fertilization	CO ₂	3.44 ²³⁰	1.97	3.53	-43%	+3%

^aRange of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Note: These numbers represent amounts applied to all agricultural land, including Land Converted to Cropland, Grassland Remaining Grassland, Land Converted to Grassland, Settlements Remaining Settlements, and Forest Land Remaining Forest Land because it is not currently possible to apportion the data by land use category

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A source-specific QA/QC plan for Urea was developed and implemented. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, as well as portions of a Tier 2 analysis. The Tier 2 procedures focused on comparing the magnitude of emission factors historically to attempt to identify any outliers or inconsistencies. No problems were found.

Recalculations Discussion

In the current Inventory, July to December 2009 and July to December 2010 urea application data were updated based on new activity data for fertilizer years 2010 and 2011, and the 2009 and 2010 emission estimates were revised accordingly. This resulted in a 0.3 percent decrease and a 3.2 percent increase in emissions for 2009 and 2010, respectively. Similarly, the July to December 2011 urea application data were updated with assumptions for fertilizer year 2012, and the 2011 emission estimate was revised accordingly. The activity data for applied urea decreased by about 449,000 metric tons for 2011 and this change resulted in an approximately 9.0 percent decrease in emissions in 2011 relative to the previous Inventory.

Planned Improvements

The primary planned improvement is to investigate using a Tier 2 or Tier 3 approach, which would utilize country-specific information to estimate a more precise emission factor. This possibility was investigated for the current Inventory, but no options were identified for updating to a Tier 2 or Tier 3 approach.

²³⁰ This value of 3.44 Tg CO₂ is rounded and reported as 3.4 Tg CO₂ in Table 7-25 and the text discussing Table 7-25. For the uncertainty calculations, the value of 3.44 Tg CO₂ was used to allow for more precise uncertainty ranges.

7.5 Land Converted to Cropland (IPCC Source Category 5B2)

Land Converted to Cropland includes all cropland in an inventory year that had been another land use at any point during the previous 20 years according to the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) land-use survey (USDA-NRCS 2009).²³¹ Consequently, these lands are retained in this category for 20 years as recommended in the IPCC guidelines (IPCC 2006) unless there is another land-use change. The inventory includes all privately-owned croplands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii, but there are approximately 100,000 hectares of *Land Converted to Cropland* on federal lands and a minor amount of cropland in Alaska that is not currently included in the estimation of C stock changes. Consequently there is a discrepancy between the total amount of managed area in *Land Converted to Cropland* (see Section 7.1) and the cropland area included in the inventory. Improvements are underway to include federal croplands in future C inventories.

Background on agricultural C stock changes is provided in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* and will only be summarized here for *Land Converted to Cropland*. Soils are the largest pool of C in agricultural land, and also have the greatest potential for storage or release of C, because biomass and dead organic matter C pools are relatively small and ephemeral compared with soils. The IPCC guidelines (IPCC 2006) recommends reporting changes in SOC stocks due to (1) agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils, and (2) agricultural land-use and management activities on organic soils.²³²

Land-use and management of mineral soils in *Land Converted to Cropland* led to losses of C throughout the time series (Table 7-31 and Table 7-32). Grassland conversion to cropland was the largest source of C losses, though losses declined over the time series. The total rate of change in soil C stocks was 16.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.6 Tg C) in 2012. Mineral soils were estimated to lose 12.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3.3 Tg C) in 2012, while drainage and cultivation of organic soils led to an annual loss of 4.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.3 Tg C) in 2012.

Table 7-31: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in Land Converted to Cropland by Land Use Change Category (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Soil Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Grassland Converted to Cropland							
Mineral	22.3	15.0	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3
Organic	2.5	4.3	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Forest Converted to Cropland							
Mineral	1.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Organic	(0.2)	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Other Lands Converted Cropland							
Mineral	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Organic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Settlements Converted Cropland							
Mineral	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Organic	(0.0)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Wetlands Converted Cropland							
Mineral	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Organic	(0.2)	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Total Mineral Soil Flux	24.8	15.8	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1
Total Organic Soil Flux	2.1	5.1	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8
Total Net Flux	26.9	20.9	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8

Note: Estimates after 2007 are based on NRI data from 2007 and therefore do not fully reflect changes occurring in the latter part of the time series.

²³¹ NRI points were classified according to land-use history records starting in 1982 when the NRI survey began, and consequently the classifications were based on less than 20 years from 1990 to 2001.

²³² CO₂ emissions associated with liming urea fertilization are also estimated but included in 7.4 Cropland Remaining Cropland.

+ Does not exceed 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.5 Gg.

Table 7-32: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Land Converted to Cropland* (Tg C)

Soil Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Grassland Converted to Cropland							
Mineral	6.1	4.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1
Organic	0.7	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
Forest Converted to Cropland							
Mineral	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Organic	(0.1)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other Lands Converted Cropland							
Mineral	0.1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Organic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Settlements Converted Cropland							
Mineral	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Organic	(0.0)	0.1	+	+	+	+	+
Wetlands Converted Cropland							
Mineral	0.1	+	+	+	+	+	+
Organic	(0.1)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total Mineral Soil Flux	6.8	4.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3
Total Organic Soil Flux	0.6	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
Total Net Flux	7.3	5.7	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6

Note: Estimates after 2007 are based on NRI data from 2007 and therefore do not fully reflect changes occurring in the latter part of the time series.

+ Does not exceed 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.5 Gg.

Parenthesis indicate net sequestration.

The spatial variability in the 2012 annual CO₂ flux is displayed in Figure 7-7 and Figure 7-8 for C stock changes in mineral and organic soil, respectively. Losses occurred in most regions of the United States. In particular, conversion of grassland and forestland to cropland led to enhanced decomposition of soil organic matter and a net loss of carbon from the soil pool. Emissions from organic soils were largest in the Southeastern Coastal Region (particularly Florida), the upper Midwest and Northeast surrounding the Great Lakes, in addition to the Pacific Coastal Region, which coincides with areas that have a large concentration of cultivated organic soils in the United States.

Figure 7-7: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2012, Land Converted to Cropland

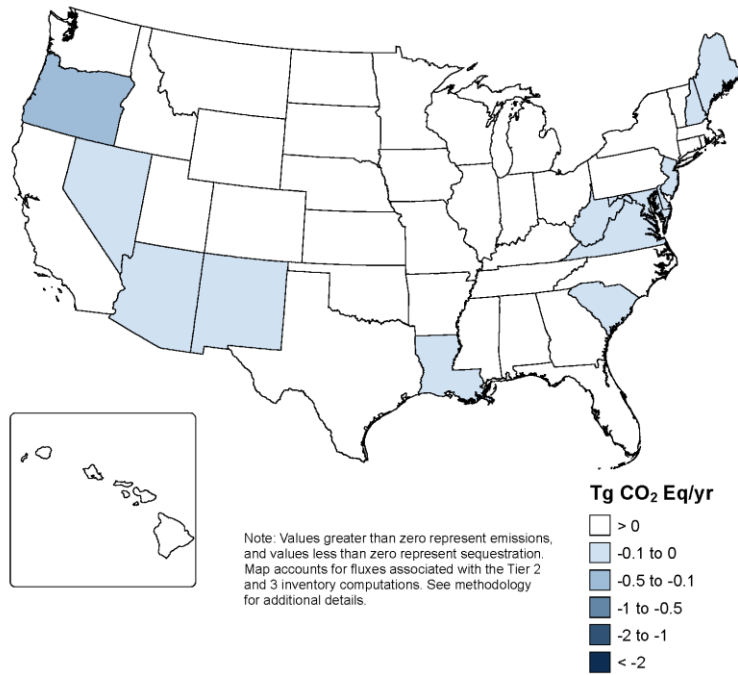
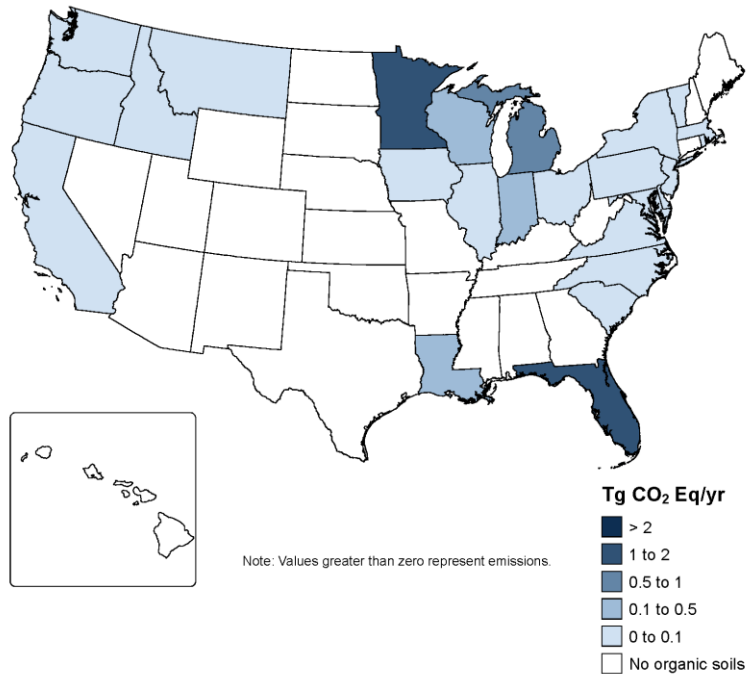


Figure 7-8: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2012, Land Converted to Cropland



Methodology

The following section includes a brief description of the methodology used to estimate changes in soil C stocks due to agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral and organic soils for *Land Converted to Cropland*. Biomass and litter C stock changes are not explicitly included in this category but losses associated with conversion of forest to cropland are included in the Forest Land Remaining Forest Land section. Further elaboration on the methodologies and data used to estimate stock changes for mineral and organic soils are provided in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section and Annex 3.12.

Soil C stock changes were estimated for *Land Converted to Cropland* according to land-use histories recorded in the USDA NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2009). Land-use and some management information (e.g., crop type, soil attributes, and irrigation) were originally collected for each NRI point on a 5-year cycle beginning in 1982. In 1998, the NRI program initiated annual data collection, and the annual data are currently available through 2007. NRI points were classified as *Land Converted to Cropland* in a given year between 1990 and 2007 if the land use was cropland but had been another use during the previous 20 years. Cropland includes all land used to produce food or fiber, or forage that is harvested and used as feed (e.g., hay and silage).

Mineral Soil Carbon Stock Changes

A Tier 3 model-based approach (Ogle et al. 2010) was applied to estimate C stock changes for soils on *Land Converted to Cropland* that are used to produce a majority of crops in the United States in terms of land area, including alfalfa hay, barley, corn, cotton, dry beans, grass hay, grass-clover hay, oats, onions, peanuts, potatoes, rice, sorghum, soybeans, sugar beets, sunflowers, tomatoes, and wheat. Soil C stock changes on the remaining soils were estimated with the IPCC Tier 2 method (Ogle et al. 2003), including land used to produce some vegetables, tobacco, perennial/horticultural crops and crops rotated with these crops; land on very gravelly, cobbly, or shaley soils (greater than 35 percent by volume); and land converted from forest or federal ownership.²³³

Tier 3 Approach

Mineral SOC stocks and stock changes were estimated using the DAYCENT biogeochemical model for the Tier 3 method (Parton et al. 1998; Del Grosso et al. 2001, 2011). The DAYCENT model utilizes the soil C modeling framework developed in the Century model (Parton et al. 1987, 1988, 1994; Metherell et al. 1993), but has been refined to simulate dynamics at a daily time-step. National estimates were obtained by using the model to simulate historical land-use change patterns as recorded in the USDA National Resources Inventory (USDA-NRCS 2009). C stocks and 95 percent confidence intervals were estimated for each year between 1990 and 2007, but C stock changes from 2008 to 2012 were assumed to be similar to 2007 because no additional activity data are currently available from the NRI for the latter years. The methods used for Land Converted to Cropland are the same as those described in the Tier 3 portion of Cropland Remaining Cropland section for mineral soils (see *Cropland Remaining Cropland* Tier 3 methods section).

Tier 2 Approach

For the mineral soils not included in the Tier 3 analysis, SOC stock changes were estimated using a Tier 2 Approach for *Land Converted to Cropland* as described in the Tier 2 portion of the Cropland Remaining Cropland section for mineral soils (see Cropland Remaining Cropland Tier 2 methods section for additional information).

Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Annual C emissions from drained organic soils in *Land Converted to Cropland* were estimated using the Tier 2 method provided in IPCC (2003, 2006), with U.S.-specific C loss rates (Ogle et al. 2003) as described in the Cropland Remaining Cropland section for organic soils (see Cropland Remaining Cropland for more information).

²³³ Federal land is not a land use, but rather an ownership designation that is treated as forest or nominal grassland for purposes of these calculations. The specific use for federal lands is not identified in the NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2009).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty analysis for mineral soil C stock changes using the Tier 3 and Tier 2 approaches were based on the same method described for *Cropland Remaining Cropland*. The uncertainty for annual C emission estimates from drained organic soils in *Land Converted to Cropland* was estimated using the Tier 2 approach, as described in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section.

Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-33 for each subsource (i.e., mineral soil C stocks and organic soil C stocks) and method that was used in the Inventory analysis (i.e., Tier 2 and Tier 3). Uncertainty for the portions of the Inventory estimated with Tier 2 and 3 approaches was derived using a Monte Carlo approach (see Annex 3.12 for further discussion). Uncertainty estimates from each approach were combined using the error propagation equation in accordance with IPCC (2006), i.e., by taking the square root of the sum of the squares of the standard deviations of the uncertain quantities. The combined uncertainty for soil C stocks in *Land Converted to Cropland* ranged from -68 percent below to 77 percent above the 2012 stock change estimate of 16.8 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-33: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Soil C Stock Changes occurring within *Land Converted to Cropland* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2012 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate ^a			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
Grassland Converted to Cropland	15.3	3.9	28.2	-75%	84%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 3	10.5	(0.4)	21.4	-104%	104%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.8	0.4	1.2	-49%	54%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	4.0	0.7	10.9	-83%	172%
Forests Converted to Cropland	0.5	0.2	1.1	-53%	123%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.3	0.1	0.4	-49%	54%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.2	0.0	0.8	-100%	258%
Other Lands Converted to Cropland	0.1	0.1	0.2	-49%	54%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.1	0.1	0.2	-49%	54%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Settlements Converted to Cropland	0.5	0.3	0.7	-36%	41%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.3	0.2	0.5	-49%	54%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.2	0.1	0.3	-46%	63%
Wetlands Converted to Croplands	0.4	0.2	0.7	-45%	57%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.1	0.04	0.1	-49%	54%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.4	0.2	0.6	-53%	68%
Total: Land Converted to Cropland	16.8	5.4	29.8	-68%	77%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 3	10.5	(0.4)	21.4	-104%	104%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	1.6	1.1	2.0	-28%	31%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	4.8	1.4	11.7	-70%	145%

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values

NA: Other land by definition does not include organic soil (see Section 7.1—Definitions of Land Use in the United States). Consequently, no land areas, C stock changes, or uncertainty results are estimated for land use conversions from Other lands to Croplands and Other lands to Grasslands on organic soils.

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Uncertainty is also associated with lack of reporting of agricultural biomass and litter C stock changes other than the loss of forest biomass and litter, which is reported in the Forestland Remaining Forestland section of the report. Biomass C stock changes are likely minor in perennial crops, such as orchards and nut plantations, given the small amount of change in land used to produce these commodities in the United States. In contrast, agroforestry practices, such as shelterbelts, riparian forests and intercropping with trees, may have led to significant changes in biomass C stocks, at least in some regions of the United States, but there are currently no datasets to evaluate the trends. Changes in litter C stocks are also assumed to be negligible in croplands over annual time frames, although there are certainly significant changes at sub-annual time scales across seasons. However, this trend may change in the future, particularly if crop residue becomes a viable feedstock for bioenergy production.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Methodological recalculations in the current Inventory were associated with the following improvements: 1) refining the temperature algorithm that is used for simulating crop production and carbon inputs to the soil in the DAYCENT biogeochemical model; 2) increasing the number of experimental sites that are used to evaluate the structural uncertainty in the DAYCENT model; and 3) recalculation of Tier 2 organic soil C emissions using annual data from the NRI rather than estimating emissions every 5 years and assuming the same emissions between the years. Change in SOC stocks declined by an average of 5.1 Tg CO₂ eq. over the time series as a result of these improvements to the Inventory.

QA/QC and Verification

See QA/QC and Verification section under Cropland Remaining Cropland.

Planned Improvements

Soil C stock changes with land use conversion from forest land to cropland are undergoing further evaluation to ensure consistency in the time series. Different methods are used to estimate soil C stock changes in forest land and croplands, and while the areas have been reconciled between these land uses, there has been limited evaluation of the consistency in C stock changes with conversion from forest land to cropland. This planned improvement may not be fully implemented for two more years, depending on resource availability. Additional planned improvements are discussed in the Cropland Remaining Cropland.

7.6 Grassland Remaining Grassland (IPCC Source Category 5C1)

Grassland Remaining Grassland includes all grassland in an inventory year that had been grassland for the previous 20 years²³⁴ according to the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) land use survey (USDA-NRCS 2009). The inventory includes all privately-owned grasslands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii, but does not address changes in C stocks for 75 million hectares of *Grassland Remaining Grassland* on federal lands or any of the 36 million hectares of managed grasslands in Alaska, leading to a discrepancy with the total amount of managed area in Grassland Remaining Grassland (see Section 7.1—Representation of the United States Land Base) and the grassland area included in the Grassland Remaining Grassland (IPCC Source Category 5C1—Section 7.6).

Background on agricultural C stock changes is provided in the Cropland Remaining Cropland section and will only be summarized here for Grassland Remaining Grassland. Soils are the largest pool of C in agricultural land, and also have the greatest potential for storage or release of C, because biomass and dead organic matter C pools are relatively small and ephemeral compared to the soil C pool. IPCC (2006) recommends reporting changes in SOC stocks due to (1) agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils, and (2) agricultural land-use and management activities on organic soils.²³⁵

²³⁴ NRI points were classified according to land-use history records starting in 1982 when the NRI survey began, and consequently the classifications were based on less than 20 years from 1990 to 2001.

²³⁵ CO₂ emissions associated with liming and urea fertilization are also estimated but included in 7.4 Cropland Remaining Cropland.

Land-use and management increased soil C in mineral soils of *Grassland Remaining Grassland* until 2005 when the trend was reversed to small decreases in soil C. Organic soils lost relatively small amounts of C in each year 1990 through 2012. Due to the pattern for mineral soils, the overall trend has been a gain in soil C through most of the time series. However, over the last decade most years have seen small losses, estimated at 6.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1.8 Tg C) in 2012. There was considerable variation over the time series driven by variability in weather patterns and associated interaction with land management activity. The change rates on per hectare basis were small, however, even in the years with larger total changes in stocks. Overall, flux rates increased by 16.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.4 Tg C) when comparing the net change in soil C from 1990 and 2012.

Table 7-34: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Soil Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Mineral Soils	(14.2)	2.5	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Organic Soils	4.6	3.1	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Total Net Flux	(9.6)	5.6	6.8	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.7

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Estimates after 2007 are based on NRI data from 2007 and therefore do not fully reflect changes occurring in the latter part of the time series.

Parentesis indicate net sequestration.

Table 7-35: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* (Tg C)

Soil Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Mineral Soils	(3.9)	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Organic Soils	1.3	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Total Net Flux	(2.6)	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Estimates after 2007 are based on NRI data from 2007 and therefore do not fully reflect changes occurring in the latter part of the time series.

Parentesis indicate net sequestration.

The spatial variability in the 2012 annual CO₂ flux is displayed in Figure 7-9 and Figure 7-10 for C stock changes in mineral and organic soils, respectively. Grassland gained soil organic C in several regions during 2012, including the Northeast, Southeast, portions of the Midwest, and Pacific Coastal Region; although the gains were relatively small on a per-hectare basis in most of these regions. Emission rates from drained organic soils were highest from organic soils were largest in the Southeastern Coastal Region (particularly Florida), upper Midwest, coinciding with two of the areas with large concentrations of organic soils in the United States that are used for agricultural production.

Figure 7-9: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2012, Grassland Remaining Grassland

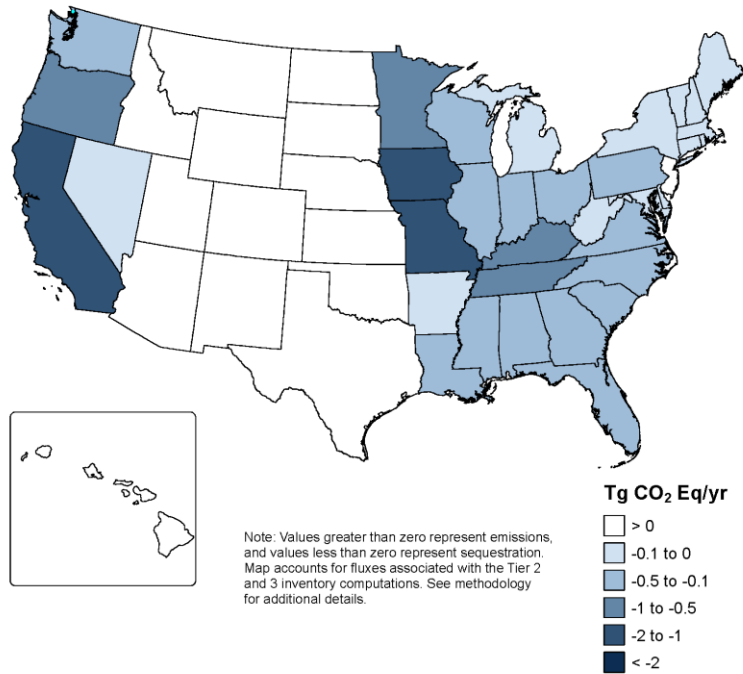
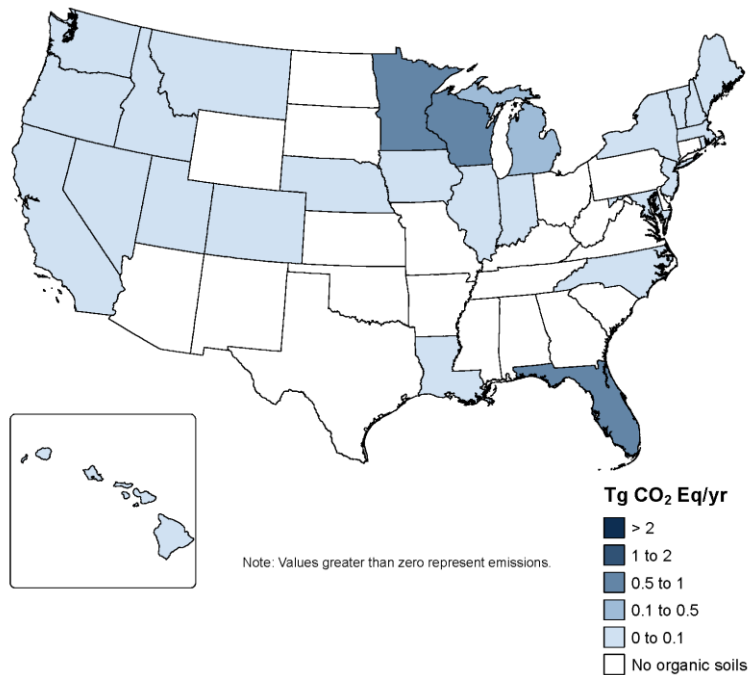


Figure 7-10: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2012, Grassland Remaining Grassland



Methodology

The following section includes a brief description of the methodology used to estimate changes in soil C stocks due to agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral and organic soils for *Grassland Remaining Grassland*. Further elaboration on the methodologies and data used to estimate stock changes from mineral and organic soils are provided in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section and Annex 3.12.

Soil C stock changes were estimated for *Grassland Remaining Grassland* according to land-use histories recorded in the USDA NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2009). Land-use and some management information (e.g., crop type, soil attributes, and irrigation) were originally collected for each NRI point on a 5-year cycle beginning in 1982. In 1998, the NRI program initiated annual data collection, and the annual data are currently available through 2007. NRI points were classified as *Grassland Remaining Grassland* in a given year between 1990 and 2007 if the land use had been grassland for 20 years. Grassland includes pasture and rangeland used for grass forage production, where the primary use is livestock grazing. Rangelands are typically extensive areas of native grassland that are not intensively managed, while pastures are often seeded grassland, possibly following tree removal, that may or may not be improved with practices such as irrigation and interseeding legumes.

Mineral Soil Carbon Stock Changes

An IPCC Tier 3 model-based approach (Ogle et al. 2010) was applied to estimate C stock changes for most mineral soils in *Grassland Remaining Grassland*. The C stock changes for the remaining soils were estimated with an IPCC Tier 2 method (Ogle et al. 2003), including gravelly, cobbly, or shaley soils (greater than 35 percent by volume) and additional stock changes associated with sewage sludge amendments.

Tier 3 Approach

Mineral SOC stocks and stock changes for *Grassland Remaining Grassland* were estimated using the DAYCENT biogeochemical model (Parton et al. 1998; Del Grosso et al. 2001, 2011), as described in *Cropland Remaining Cropland*. The DAYCENT model utilizes the soil C modeling framework developed in the Century model (Parton et al. 1987, 1988, 1994; Metherell et al. 1993), but has been refined to simulate dynamics at a daily time-step. Historical land-use and management patterns were used in the DAYCENT simulations as recorded in the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) survey, with supplemental information on fertilizer use and rates from the USDA Economic Research Service Cropping Practices Survey (USDA-ERS 1997, 2011) and National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS 1992, 1999, 2004). Frequency and rates of manure application to grassland during 1997 were estimated from data compiled by the USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service (Edmonds, et al. 2003), and then adjusted using county-level estimates of manure available for application in other years. Specifically, county-scale ratios of manure available for application to soils in other years relative to 1997 were used to adjust the area amended with manure (see *Cropland Remaining Cropland* for further details). Greater availability of managed manure N relative to 1997 was, thus, assumed to increase the area amended with manure, while reduced availability of manure N relative to 1997 was assumed to reduce the amended area.

The amount of manure produced by each livestock type was calculated for managed and unmanaged waste management systems based on methods described in the Manure Management, Section 6.2, and Annex 3.11. Manure N deposition from grazing animals (i.e., PRP manure) was an input to the DAYCENT model (see Annex 3.11), and included approximately 91 percent of total PRP manure (the remainder is deposited on federal lands, which are currently not included in this inventory). C stocks and 95 percent confidence intervals were estimated for each year between 1990 and 2007, but C stock changes from 2008 to 2012 were assumed to be similar to 2007 because no additional activity data are currently available from the NRI for the latter years (See *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section for additional discussion on the Tier 3 methodology for mineral soils).

Tier 2 Approach

The Tier 2 approach is based on the same methods described in the Tier 2 portion of *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section for mineral soils (see *Cropland Remaining Cropland* Tier 2 methods section for additional information).

Additional Mineral C Stock Change Calculations

Annual C flux estimates for mineral soils between 1990 and 2012 were adjusted to account for additional C stock changes associated with sewage sludge amendments using a Tier 2 method. Estimates of the amounts of sewage sludge N applied to agricultural land were derived from national data on sewage sludge generation, disposition, and N content. Total sewage sludge generation data for 1988, 1996, and 1998, in dry mass units, were obtained from an EPA report (EPA 1999) and estimates for 2004 were obtained from an independent national biosolids survey (NEBRA 2007). These values were linearly interpolated to estimate values for the intervening years, and linearly extrapolated to estimate values for years since 2004. N application rates from Kellogg et al. (2000) were used to determine the amount of area receiving sludge amendments. Although sewage sludge can be added to land managed for other land uses, it was assumed that agricultural amendments occur in grassland. Cropland is assumed to rarely be amended with sewage sludge due to the high metal content and other pollutants in human waste. The soil C storage rate was estimated at 0.38 metric tons C per hectare per year for sewage sludge amendments to grassland. The stock change rate is based on country-specific factors and the IPCC default method (see Annex 3.12 for further discussion).

Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Annual C emissions from drained organic soils in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* were estimated using the Tier 2 method provided in IPCC (2003, 2006), which utilizes U.S.-specific C loss rates (Ogle et al. 2003) rather than default IPCC rates, as described in the *Cropland Remaining Cropland* section for organic soils (see *Cropland Remaining Cropland* for more information).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-36 for each subsource (i.e., mineral soil C stocks and organic soil C stocks) disaggregated to the level of the inventory methodology employed (i.e., Tier 2 and Tier 3). Uncertainty for the portions of the Inventory estimated with Tier 2 and 3 approaches was derived using a Monte Carlo approach (see Annex 3.12 for further discussion). Uncertainty estimates from each approach were combined using the error propagation equation in accordance with IPCC (2006), i.e., by taking the square root of the sum of the squares of the standard deviations of the uncertain quantities. The combined uncertainty for soil C stocks in *Grassland Remaining Grassland* ranged from 529 percent below to 529 percent above the 2012 stock change estimate of 6.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. The large relative uncertainty is due to the small net flux estimate in 2012.

Table 7-36: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for C Stock Changes Occurring Within *Grassland Remaining Grassland* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2012 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate ^a			
		(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Mineral Soil C Stocks <i>Grassland Remaining Grassland</i> , Tier 3 Methodology	4.9	(30.6)	40.5	-718%	718%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: <i>Grassland Remaining Grassland</i> , Tier 2 Methodology	0.1	0.0	0.2	-86%	109%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: <i>Grassland Remaining Grassland</i> , Tier 2 Methodology (Change in Soil C due to Sewage Sludge Amendments)	(1.3)	(2.0)	(0.7)	-50%	50%
Organic Soil C Stocks: <i>Grassland Remaining Grassland</i> , Tier 2 Methodology	3.0	1.6	4.9	-46%	63%
Combined Uncertainty for Flux Associated with Agricultural Soil Carbon Stock Change in <i>Grassland Remaining Grassland</i>	6.7	(28.8)	42.3	-529%	529%

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values.

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Uncertainty is also associated with lack of reporting of agricultural biomass and litter C stock changes, in addition to non-CO₂ greenhouse gas emissions from burning. Biomass C stock changes may be significant for managed grasslands with woody encroachment that have not attained enough tree cover to be considered forest lands. Grassland burning is not as common in the United States as other regions of the world, but fires do occur through management incorporating prescribed burning, and also natural ignition sources. However, changes in litter C stocks are assumed to be negligible in grasslands over annual time frames, although there are certainly significant changes at sub-annual time scales across seasons.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Methodological recalculations in the current Inventory were associated with the following improvements: 1) refining the temperature algorithm that is used for simulating grass production and carbon inputs to the soil in the DAYCENT biogeochemical model; 2) increasing the number of experimental sites that are used to evaluate the structural uncertainty in the DAYCENT model; 3) recalculation of Tier 2 organic soil C emissions using annual data from the NRI rather than estimating emissions every 5 years and assuming the same emissions between the years; and 4) simulation of carbon inputs from PRP manure based on livestock management activity data rather than automated routines in the DAYCENT model. Changes in SOC stocks declined by an average of 1.74 Tg CO₂ eq. over the time series as a result of these improvements to the Inventory.

QA/QC and Verification

Quality control measures included checking input data, model scripts, and results to ensure data were properly handled through the inventory process. DAYCENT simulations had errors in the PRP manure N application. The error was associated with the scaling state level estimates of PRP manure N from the manure management section to counties within the states for the DAYCENT simulations. In the previous Inventory report, DAYCENT was used to simulate the PRP manure N input with automated routines. However, after adjusting the scaling process for the current dataset, the estimates were based on the PRP manure N and associated C inputs to soils from managed manure section of this report. This change provided internal consistency between the manure management data and the agricultural soil management and LULUCF inventories.

Inventory reporting forms and text were reviewed and revised as needed to correct transcription errors. Modeled results were compared to measurements from several long-term grazing experiments (See Annex 3.12 for more information).

Planned Improvements

One of the key planned improvements for the *Grassland Remaining Grassland* is to develop an inventory of carbon stock changes for the 75 million hectares of federal grasslands in the western United States. While federal grasslands probably have minimal changes in land management and C stocks, improvements are underway to include federal grasslands in future C inventories. Grasslands in Alaska will also be further evaluated in the future. This is a significant improvement and estimates are expected to be available for the 1990-2013 Inventory. The other key planned improvement is to estimate non-CO₂ greenhouse gas emissions from burning of grasslands. See Planned Improvements section under Cropland Remaining Cropland for information about other improvements.

7.7 Land Converted to Grassland (IPCC Source Category 5C2)

Land Converted to Grassland includes all grassland in an inventory year that had been in another land use at any point during the previous 20 years²³⁶ according to the USDA National Resources Inventory (NRI) land-use survey (USDA-NRCS 2009). Consequently, lands are retained in this category for 20 years as recommended by IPCC (2006) unless there is another land use change. The Inventory includes all privately-owned grasslands in the conterminous United States and Hawaii, but does not address changes in C stocks for 800,000-850,000 hectares *Land Converted to Grassland* on federal lands across the time series or any of the grassland area in Alaska, leading to a discrepancy between the total amount of managed area for Land Converted to Grassland (see Section 7.1—Representation of the United States Land Base) and the grassland area included in *Land Converted to Grassland* (IPCC Source Category 5C2—Section 7.7).

Background on agricultural C stock changes is provided in *Cropland Remaining Cropland* and will only be summarized here for *Land Converted to Grassland*. Soils are the largest pool of C in agricultural land, and also have the greatest potential for storage or release of C, because biomass and dead organic matter C pools are relatively small and ephemeral compared with soils. IPCC (2006) recommend reporting changes in SOC stocks due to (1) agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils, and (2) agricultural land-use and management activities on organic soils.²³⁷

Land-use and management of mineral soils in *Land Converted to Grassland* led to an increase in soil C stocks from 1990 through 2012 (see Table 7-37 and Table 7-38). For example, the stock change rates were estimated to remove 8.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.2 Tg C) and 9.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.6 Tg C) from mineral soils in 1990 and 2012, respectively. Drainage of organic soils for grazing management led to losses of 0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.2 Tg C) and 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.3 Tg C) in 1990 and 2012, respectively.

Table 7-37: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes for *Land Converted to Grassland* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Soil Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Cropland Converted to Grassland							
Mineral	(6.3)	(8.3)	(8.6)	(8.5)	(8.5)	(8.4)	(8.4)
Organic	0.5	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Forest Converted to Grassland							
Mineral	(1.1)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.4)
Organic	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other Lands Converted Grassland							
Mineral	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)
Organic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Settlements Converted Grassland							
Mineral	(0.4)	(0.5)	(0.5)	(0.5)	(0.5)	(0.5)	(0.5)
Organic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wetlands Converted Grassland							
Mineral	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)
Organic	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total Mineral Soil Flux	(8.1)	(9.5)	(9.8)	(9.8)	(9.7)	(9.7)	(9.6)
Total Organic Soil Flux	0.8	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
Total Net Flux	(7.3)	(8.3)	(8.7)	(8.7)	(8.6)	(8.6)	(8.5)

²³⁶ NRI points were classified according to land-use history records starting in 1982 when the NRI survey began, and consequently the classifications were based on less than 20 years from 1990 to 2001.

²³⁷ CO₂ emissions associated with liming are also estimated but included in 7.4 Cropland Remaining Cropland.

Note: Estimates after 2007 are based on NRI data from 2007 and therefore do not fully reflect changes occurring in the latter part of the time series.

+ Does not exceed 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.5 Gg.

Table 7-38: Net CO₂ Flux from Soil C Stock Changes for *Land Converted to Grassland* (Tg C)

Soil Type	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Cropland Converted to Grassland							
Mineral	(1.7)	(2.3)	(2.3)	(2.3)	(2.3)	(2.3)	(2.3)
Organic	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Forest Converted to Grassland							
Mineral	(0.3)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)
Organic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Other Lands Converted Grassland							
Mineral	(0.1)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Organic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Settlements Converted Grassland							
Mineral	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)
Organic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wetlands Converted Grassland							
Mineral	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)
Organic	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total Mineral Soil Flux	(2.2)	(2.6)	(2.7)	(2.7)	(2.7)	(2.6)	(2.6)
Total Organic Soil Flux	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Total Net Flux	(2.0)	(2.3)	(2.4)	(2.4)	(2.4)	(2.3)	(2.3)

Note: Estimates after 2007 are based on NRI data from 2007 and therefore do not fully reflect changes occurring in the latter part of the time series.

Parenthesis indicate net sequestration.

+ Does not exceed 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.5 Gg.

The spatial variability in the 2012 annual CO₂ flux is displayed in Figure 7-11 and Figure 7-12 for C stock changes in mineral and organic soils, respectively. Soil C stock increased in most states for *Land Converted to Grassland*. The largest gains were in the Southeastern region, Northeast, South-Central, Midwest, and northern Great Plains. The patterns were driven by conversion of annual cropland into continuous pasture. Emissions from organic soils were highest in the Pacific Coastal Region, Gulf Coast Region, and the upper Midwest and Northeast surrounding the Great Lakes, coinciding with the largest concentrations of organic soils in the United States that are used for agricultural production.

Figure 7-11: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Mineral Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2012, Land Converted to Grassland

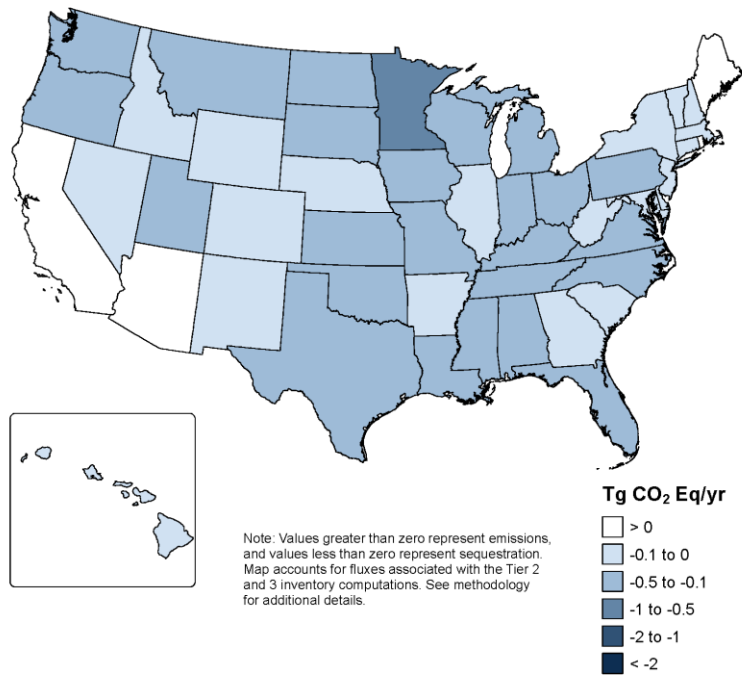
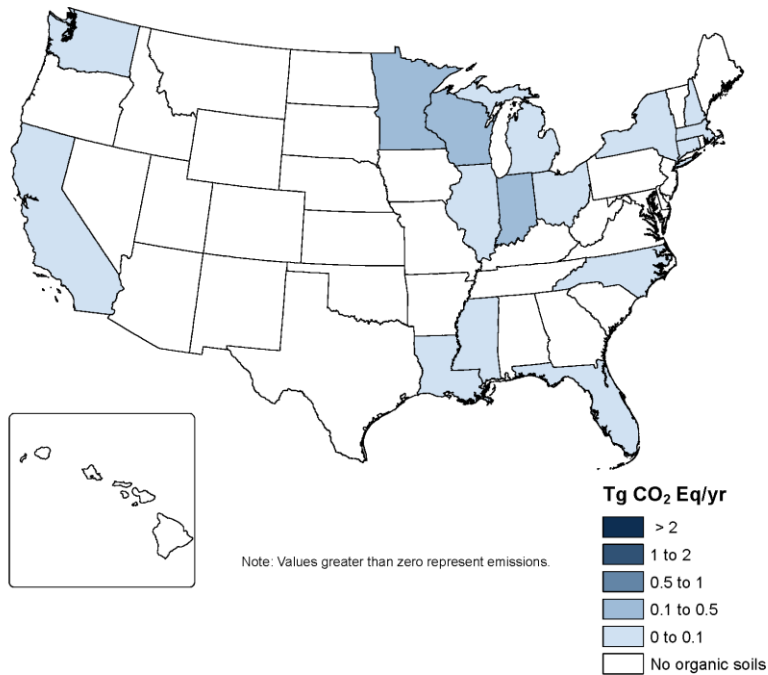


Figure 7-12: Total Net Annual CO₂ Flux for Organic Soils under Agricultural Management within States, 2012, Land Converted to Grassland



Methodology

This section includes a brief description of the methodology used to estimate changes in soil C stocks due to agricultural land-use and management activities on mineral soils for *Land Converted to Grassland*. Biomass and litter C stock changes are not explicitly included in this category but losses associated with conversion of forest to grassland are included in the Forest Land Remaining Forest Land section. Further elaboration on the methodologies and data used to estimate stock changes from mineral and organic soils are provided in the Cropland Remaining Cropland section and Annex 3.12.

Soil C stock changes were estimated for *Land Converted to Grassland* according to land-use histories recorded in the USDA NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2009). Land-use and some management information (e.g., crop type, soil attributes, and irrigation) were originally collected for each NRI point on a 5-year cycle beginning in 1982. In 1998, the NRI program initiated annual data collection, and the annual data are currently available through 2007. NRI points were classified as *Land Converted to Grassland* in a given year between 1990 and 2007 if the land use was grassland, but had been another use in the previous 20 years. Grassland includes pasture and rangeland used for grass forage production, where the primary use is livestock grazing. Rangeland typically includes extensive areas of native grassland that are not intensively managed, while pastures are often seeded grassland, possibly following tree removal, that may or may not be improved with practices such as irrigation and interseeding legumes.

Mineral Soil Carbon Stock Changes

An IPCC Tier 3 model-based approach (Ogle et al. 2010) was applied to estimate C stock changes for *Land Converted to Grassland* on most mineral soils. C stock changes on the remaining soils were estimated with an IPCC Tier 2 approach (Ogle et al. 2003), including prior cropland used to produce vegetables, tobacco, and perennial/horticultural crops; land areas with very gravelly, cobbly, or shaley soils (greater than 35 percent by volume); and land converted from forest.²³⁸ A Tier 2 approach was also used to estimate additional changes in mineral soil C stocks due to sewage sludge amendments. However, all stock changes associated with sewage sludge amendments are reported in the Grassland Remaining Grassland section.

Tier 3 Approach

Mineral SOC stocks and stock changes were estimated using the DAYCENT biogeochemical model (Parton et al. 1998; Del Grosso et al. 2001, 2011) as described for *Grassland Remaining Grassland*. The DAYCENT model utilizes the soil C modeling framework developed in the Century model (Parton et al. 1987, 1988, 1994; Metherell et al. 1993), but has been refined to simulate dynamics at a daily time-step. Historical land-use and management patterns were used in the DAYCENT simulations as recorded in the NRI survey, with supplemental information on fertilizer use and rates from the USDA Economic Research Service Cropping Practices Survey (USDA-ERS 1997, 2011) and the National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS 1992, 1999, 2004) (See Cropland Remaining Cropland section for additional discussion on the Tier 3 methodology for mineral soils).

Tier 2 Approach

The Tier 2 approach used for *Land Converted to Grassland* on mineral soils is the same as described for Cropland Remaining Cropland (see Cropland Remaining Cropland Tier 2 methods section for additional information).

Organic Soil Carbon Stock Changes

Annual C emissions from drained organic soils in *Land Converted to Grassland* were estimated using the Tier 2 method provided in IPCC (2003, 2006), with U.S.-specific C loss rates (Ogle et al. 2003) as described in the Cropland Remaining Cropland section for organic soils (see Cropland Remaining Cropland for more information).

²³⁸ Federal land is converted into private land in some cases due to changes in ownership. The specific use for federal lands is not identified in the NRI survey (USDA-NRCS 2009), and so the land is assumed to be forest or nominal grassland for purposes of these calculations.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty estimates are presented in Table 7-39 for each subsource (i.e., mineral soil C stocks and organic soil C stocks), disaggregated to the level of the inventory methodology employed (i.e., Tier 2 and Tier 3). Uncertainty for the portions of the Inventory estimated with Tier 2 and 3 approaches was derived using a Monte Carlo approach (see Annex 3.12 for further discussion). Uncertainty estimates from each approach were combined using the error propagation equation in accordance with IPCC (2006) (i.e., by taking the square root of the sum of the squares of the standard deviations of the uncertain quantities). The combined uncertainty for soil C stocks in *Land Converted to Grassland* ranged from -108 percent below to 108 percent above the 2012 stock change estimate of 8.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. The large relative uncertainty is due to the small net flux estimate in 2012.

Table 7-39: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Soil C Stock Changes occurring within *Land Converted to Grassland* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	2012 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate ^a			
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
Cropland Converted to Grassland	(7.5)	(16.7)	1.7	-122%	123%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 3	(7.1)	(16.2)	2.0	-128%	128%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	(1.3)	(1.9)	(0.7)	-45%	45%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.9	0.3	1.8	-63%	98%
Forests Converted to Grassland	(0.3)	(0.6)	(0.1)	-62%	72%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	(0.4)	(0.6)	(0.2)	-48%	44%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.1	0.0	0.2	-100%	231%
Other Lands Converted to Grassland	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.1)	-48%	44%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.1)	-48%	44%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Settlements Converted to Grassland	(0.5)	(0.7)	(0.3)	-51%	47%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	(0.5)	(0.8)	(0.3)	-48%	44%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.0	0.0	0.1	-86%	160%
Wetlands Converted to Grasslands	(8.5)	(17.7)	0.7	-108%	108%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.1)	-48%	44%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	0.1	0.0	0.2	-58%	81%
Total: Land Converted to Grassland	(8.5)	(17.7)	0.7	-108%	108%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 3	(7.1)	(16.2)	2.0	-128%	128%
Mineral Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	(2.5)	(3.2)	(1.9)	-27%	26%
Organic Soil C Stocks: Tier 2	1.1	0.5	2.0	-52%	81%

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values.

NA: Other land by definition does not include organic soil (see Section 7.1—Definitions of Land Use in the United States). Consequently, no land areas, C stock changes, or uncertainty results are estimated for land use conversions from Other lands to Croplands and Other lands to Grasslands on organic soils.

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Uncertainty is also associated with lack of reporting of agricultural biomass and litter C stock changes, other than the loss of forest biomass and litter, which is reported in the Forestland Remaining Forestland section of the report. Biomass C stock changes may be significant for managed grasslands with woody encroachment that have not attained enough tree cover to be considered forest lands. However, changes in litter C stocks are assumed to be negligible in grasslands over annual time frames, although there are certainly significant changes at sub-annual time scales across seasons.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

Recalculations Discussion

Methodological recalculations in the current Inventory were associated with the following improvements: 1) refining the temperature algorithm that is used for simulating grass production and carbon inputs to the soil in the DAYCENT biogeochemical model; 2) increasing the number of experimental sites that are used to evaluate the structural uncertainty in the DAYCENT model; 3) recalculation of Tier 2 organic soil C emissions using annual data from the NRI rather than estimating emissions every 5 years and assuming the same emissions between the years; and 4) simulation of carbon inputs from PRP manure based on livestock management activity data rather than automated routines in the DAYCENT model. Change in SOC stocks declined by an average of 1.12 Tg CO₂ Eq. over the time series as a result of these improvements to the Inventory.

QA/QC and Verification

See the QA/QC and Verification section under Grassland Remaining Grassland.

Planned Improvements

Soil C stock changes with land use conversion from forest land to grassland are undergoing further evaluation to ensure consistency in the time series. Different methods are used to estimate soil C stock changes in forest land and grasslands, and while the areas have been reconciled between these land uses, there has been limited evaluation of the consistency in C stock changes with conversion from forest land to grassland. This planned improvement may not be fully implemented for two more years, depending on resource availability. Another key planned improvement for the Land Converted to Grassland category is to develop an inventory of carbon stock changes for the 800,000-850,000 hectares of Federal grasslands in the western United States. Grasslands in Alaska will also be evaluated. See Planned Improvements sections under Cropland Remaining Cropland and Grassland Remaining Grassland for additional planned improvements.

Wetlands Remaining Wetlands

Peatlands Remaining Peatlands

Emissions from Managed Peatlands

Managed peatlands are peatlands which have been cleared and drained for the production of peat. The production cycle of a managed peatland has three phases: land conversion in preparation for peat extraction (e.g., clearing surface biomass, draining), extraction (which results in the emissions reported under *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*), and abandonment, restoration, or conversion of the land to another use.

CO₂ emissions from the removal of biomass and the decay of drained peat constitute the major greenhouse gas flux from managed peatlands. Managed peatlands may also emit CH₄ and N₂O. The natural production of CH₄ is largely reduced but not entirely shut down when peatlands are drained in preparation for peat extraction (Strack et al., 2004 as cited in IPCC 2006); however, CH₄ emissions are assumed to be insignificant under IPCC Tier 1 methodology (IPCC 2006). N₂O emissions from managed peatlands depend on site fertility. In addition, abandoned and restored peatlands continue to release greenhouse gas emissions, and at present no methodology is provided by IPCC (2006) to estimate greenhouse gas emissions or removals from restored peatlands; although methodologies will be provided for rewetted organic soils (which includes rewetted/restored peatlands) in the *2013 Supplement to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Wetlands* (the final publication is scheduled for February 2014). This Inventory estimates both CO₂ and N₂O emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* in accordance with Tier 1 IPCC (2006) guidelines.

CO₂ and N₂O Emissions from Peatlands Remaining Peatlands

IPCC (2006) recommends reporting CO₂ and N₂O emissions from lands undergoing active peat extraction (i.e., *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*) as part of the estimate for emissions from managed wetlands. Peatlands occur where plant biomass has sunk to the bottom of water bodies and water-logged areas and exhausted the oxygen supply below the water surface during the course of decay. Due to these anaerobic conditions, much of the plant matter does not decompose but instead forms layers of peat over decades and centuries. In the United States, peat is extracted for horticulture and landscaping growing media, and for a wide variety of industrial, personal care, and other products. It has not been used for fuel in the United States for many decades. Peat is harvested from two types of peat deposits in the United States: sphagnum bogs in northern states and wetlands in states further south. The peat from sphagnum bogs in northern states, which is nutrient poor, is generally corrected for acidity and mixed with fertilizer. Production from more southerly states is relatively coarse (i.e., fibrous) but nutrient rich.

IPCC (2006) recommends considering both on-site and off-site emissions when estimating CO₂ emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* using the Tier 1 approach. Current methodologies estimate only on-site N₂O emissions, since off-site N₂O estimates are complicated by the risk of double-counting emissions from nitrogen fertilizers added to horticultural peat. On-site emissions from managed peatlands occur as the land is cleared of vegetation and the underlying peat is exposed to sun and weather. As this occurs, some peat deposit is lost and CO₂ is emitted from the oxidation of the peat. Since N₂O emissions from saturated ecosystems tend to be low unless there is an exogenous source of nitrogen, N₂O emissions from drained peatlands are dependent on nitrogen mineralization and therefore on soil fertility. Peatlands located on highly fertile soils contain significant amounts of organic nitrogen in inactive form. Draining land in preparation for peat extraction allows bacteria to convert the nitrogen into nitrates which leach to the surface where they are reduced to N₂O.

Off-site CO₂ emissions from managed peatlands occur from the horticultural and landscaping use of peat. Nutrient-poor (but fertilizer-enriched) peat tends to be used in bedding plants and in greenhouse and plant nursery production, whereas nutrient-rich (but relatively coarse) peat is used directly in landscaping, athletic fields, golf courses, and plant nurseries. Most (nearly 98 percent) of the CO₂ emissions from peat occur off-site, as the peat is processed and sold to firms which, in the United States, use it predominantly for horticultural purposes.

Total emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* were estimated to be 0.834 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2012 (see Table 7-40) comprising 0.830 Tg CO₂ Eq. (830 Gg) of CO₂ and 0.004 Tg CO₂ Eq. (0.012 Gg) of N₂O. Total emissions in 2012 were about 10 percent smaller than total emissions in 2011. Peat production reported in Alaska in 2012 was 51 percent higher than in 2011. However, peat production reported in the lower 48 states in 2012 was 14 percent lower than in 2011, resulting in smaller total 48 states plus Alaska emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* in 2012 compared to 2011.

Total emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* have fluctuated between 0.8 and 1.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. across the time series with a decreasing trend from 1990 until 1993 followed by an increasing trend through 2000. After 2000, emissions generally decreased until 2006 and then increased until 2009, when the trend reversed. Emissions in 2012 represent a decline from emissions in 2011. CO₂ emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* have fluctuated between 0.8 and 1.2 Tg CO₂ across the time series, and these emissions drive the trends in total emissions. N₂O emissions remained close to zero across the time series, with a decreasing trend from 1990 until 1995, followed by an increasing trend through 2001. N₂O emissions decreased between 2001 and 2006, followed by a leveling off between 2008 and 2010, and a decline in 2011 and again in 2012.

Table 7-40: Emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
Off-site	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8
On-site	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
N ₂ O (On-site)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Total	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8

+ Less than 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Note: These numbers are based on U.S. production data in accordance with Tier 1 guidelines, which does not take into account imports, exports and stockpiles (i.e., apparent consumption). Off-site N₂O emissions are not estimated to avoid double-counting N₂O emitted from the fertilizer that the peat is mixed with prior to horticultural use (see IPCC 2006).

Table 7-41: Emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* (Gg)

Gas	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CO ₂	1,033	1,079	992	1,089	1,010	919	830
Off-site	1,008	1,052	969	1,064	986	898	812
On-site	26	27	24	25	24	22	18
N ₂ O (On-site)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

+ Less than 0.5 Gg

Note: These numbers are based on U.S. production data in accordance with Tier 1 guidelines, which does not take into account imports, exports, and stockpiles (i.e., apparent consumption). Off-site N₂O emissions are not estimated to avoid double-counting N₂O emitted from the fertilizer that the peat is mixed with prior to horticultural use (see IPCC 2006).

Methodology

Off-Site CO₂ Emissions

CO₂ emissions from domestic peat production were estimated using a Tier 1 methodology consistent with IPCC (2006). Off-site CO₂ emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* were calculated by apportioning the annual weight of peat produced in the United States (Table 7-42) into peat extracted from nutrient-rich deposits and peat extracted from nutrient-poor deposits using annual percentage-by-weight figures. These nutrient-rich and nutrient-poor production values were then multiplied by the appropriate default C fraction conversion factor taken from IPCC (2006) in order to obtain off-site emission estimates. For the lower 48 states, both annual percentages of peat type by weight and domestic peat production data were sourced from estimates and industry statistics provided in the *Minerals Yearbook* and *Mineral Commodity Summaries* from the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS 1991–2013). To develop these data, the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS; U.S. Bureau of Mines prior to 1997) obtained production and use information by surveying domestic peat producers. On average, about 75 percent of the peat operations respond to the survey. USGS estimated data for non-respondents on the basis of prior-year production levels (Apodaca 2011).

The Alaska estimates rely on reported peat production from Alaska’s annual Mineral Industry Reports (Szumigala et al. 2010). Similar to the U.S. Geological Survey, Alaska’s Mineral Industry Report methodology solicits voluntary reporting of peat production from producers. However, the report does not estimate production for the non-reporting producers, resulting in larger inter-annual variation in reported peat production from Alaska depending on the number of producers who report in a given year (Szumigala 2011). In addition, in both the lower 48 states and Alaska, large variations in peat production can also result from variations in precipitation and the subsequent changes in moisture conditions, since unusually wet years can hamper peat production (USGS 1991–2013). The methodology estimates Alaska emissions separately from lower 48 emissions because the state conducts its own mineral survey and reports peat production by volume, rather than by weight (Table 7-43). However, volume production data were used to calculate off-site CO₂ emissions from Alaska applying the same methodology but with volume-specific C fraction conversion factors from IPCC (2006).²³⁹ At the time of writing, the Alaska’s annual Mineral Industry Reports for 2011 and 2012 were not yet published; therefore Alaska’s peat production in 2011 and 2012 (reported in cubic meters) were taken from the 2011 and 2012 USGS Minerals Yearbooks (Harbo 2012 as cited in USGS 2012, Harbo 2013 as cited in USGS 2013).

The *apparent consumption* of peat, which includes production plus imports minus exports plus the decrease in stockpiles, in the United States is over two-and-a-half times the amount of domestic peat production. However, consistent with the Tier 1 method whereby only domestic peat production is accounted for when estimating off-site emissions, off-site CO₂ emissions from the use of peat not produced within the United States are not included in the Inventory. The United States has increasingly imported peat from Canada for horticultural purposes; from 2007 to 2012, imports of sphagnum moss (nutrient-poor) peat from Canada represented 97 percent of total U.S. peat imports (USGS 2013). Most peat produced in the United States is reed-sedge peat, generally from southern states, which is classified as nutrient rich by IPCC (2006). Higher-tier calculations of CO₂ emissions from apparent consumption

²³⁹ Peat produced from Alaska was assumed to be nutrient poor; as is the case in Canada, “where deposits of high-quality [but nutrient poor] sphagnum moss are extensive” (USGS 2008).

would involve consideration of the percentages of peat types stockpiled (nutrient rich versus nutrient poor) as well as the percentages of peat types imported and exported.

Table 7-42: Peat Production of Lower 48 States (thousand Metric Tons)

Type of Deposit	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Nutrient-Rich	595.1	657.6	559.7	560.3	558.9	511.2	409.9
Nutrient-Poor	55.4	27.4	55.4	48.7	69.1	56.8	78.1
Total Production	692.0	685.0	615.0	609.0	628.0	568.0	488.0

Sources: United States Geological Survey (USGS) (1991–2013) *Minerals Yearbook: Peat (1994–2012)*; United States Geological Survey (USGS) (1996–2013) *Mineral Commodity Summaries: Peat (1996–2012)*.

Table 7-43: Peat Production of Alaska (thousand Cubic Meters)

	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total Production	49.7	47.8	64.1	183.9	59.8	61.5	93.1

Sources: Division of Geological & Geophysical Surveys (DGGs), Alaska Department of Natural Resources (1997–2011) *Alaska's Mineral Industry Report (1997–2010)*; United States Geological Survey (USGS) (2012–2013) *Minerals Yearbook: Peat (2011–2012)*.

On-site CO₂ Emissions

IPCC (2006) suggests basing the calculation of on-site emission estimates on the area of peatlands managed for peat extraction differentiated by the nutrient type of the deposit (rich versus poor). Information on the area of land managed for peat extraction is currently not available for the United States, but in accordance with IPCC (2006), an average production rate for the industry was applied to derive an area estimate. In a mature industrialized peat industry, such as exists in the United States and Canada, the vacuum method can extract up to 100 metric tons per hectare per year (Cleary et al. 2005 as cited in IPCC 2006).²⁴⁰ The area of land managed for peat extraction in the United States was estimated using nutrient-rich and nutrient-poor production data and the assumption that 100 metric tons of peat are extracted from a single hectare in a single year. The annual land area estimates were then multiplied by the appropriate nutrient-rich or nutrient-poor IPCC (2006) default emission factor in order to calculate on-site CO₂ emission estimates. Production data are not available by weight for Alaska. In order to calculate on-site emissions resulting from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* in Alaska, the production data by volume were converted to weight using annual average bulk peat density values, and then converted to land area estimates using the same assumption that a single hectare yields 100 metric tons. The IPCC (2006) on-site emissions equation also includes a term which accounts for emissions resulting from the change in C stocks that occurs during the clearing of vegetation prior to peat extraction. Area data on land undergoing conversion to peatlands for peat extraction is also unavailable for the United States. However, USGS records show that the number of active operations in the United States has been declining since 1990; therefore it seems reasonable to assume that no new areas are being cleared of vegetation for managed peat extraction. Other changes in C stocks in living biomass on managed peatlands are also assumed to be zero under the Tier 1 methodology (IPCC 2006).

On-site N₂O Emissions

IPCC (2006) suggests basing the calculation of on-site N₂O emission estimates on the area of nutrient-rich peatlands managed for peat extraction. These area data are not available directly for the United States, but the on-site CO₂ emissions methodology above details the calculation of area data from production data. In order to estimate N₂O emissions, the area of nutrient rich *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* was multiplied by the appropriate default emission factor taken from IPCC (2006).

²⁴⁰ The vacuum method is one type of extraction that annually “mills” or breaks up the surface of the peat into particles, which then dry during the summer months. The air-dried peat particles are then collected by vacuum harvesters and transported from the area to stockpiles (IPCC 2006).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainty associated with peat production data was estimated to be ± 25 percent (Apodaca 2008) and assumed to be normally distributed. The uncertainty associated with peat production data stems from the fact that the USGS receives data from the smaller peat producers but estimates production from some larger peat distributors. The peat type production percentages were assumed to have the same uncertainty values and distribution as the peat production data (i.e., ± 25 percent with a normal distribution). The uncertainty associated with the Alaskan reported production data was assumed to be the same as the lower 48 states, or ± 25 percent with a normal distribution. It should be noted that the Alaska Department of Natural Resources estimates that around half of producers do not respond to their survey with peat production data; therefore, the production numbers reported are likely to underestimate Alaska peat production (Szumigala 2008). The uncertainty associated with the average bulk density values was estimated to be ± 25 percent with a normal distribution (Apodaca 2008). IPCC (2006) gives uncertainty values for the emissions factors for the area of peat deposits managed for peat extraction based on the range of underlying data used to determine the emission factors. The uncertainty associated with the emission factors was assumed to be triangularly distributed. The uncertainty values surrounding the C fractions were based on IPCC (2006) and the uncertainty was assumed to be uniformly distributed. Based on these values and distributions, a Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was applied to estimate the uncertainty of CO₂ and N₂O emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-44. CO₂ emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* in 2012 were estimated to be between 0.6 and 1.1 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 26 percent below to 30 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 0.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. N₂O emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* in 2012 were estimated to be between 0.001 and 0.005 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 73 percent below to 38 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 0.004 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-44: Tier-2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
Peatlands Remaining	CO ₂	0.8	0.6	1.1	-26%	30%
Peatlands	N ₂ O	+	+	+	-73%	38%

+ Does not exceed 0.01 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.5 Gg.

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation. The QA/QC analysis did not reveal any inaccuracies or incorrect input values.

Recalculations Discussion

The current Inventory represents the sixth Inventory report in which emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands* are included. The Inventory estimates for 2011 are updated to incorporate information on the volume of peat production in Alaska from the *2011 Minerals Yearbook: Peat* (USGS 2012). In the previous Inventory report, peat production in Alaska in 2011 was assumed to equal the value reported for 2010 in Alaska's 2010 Mineral Industry Report. Since Alaska's 2011 Mineral Industry Report is not published as of October 2013, the current Inventory updated 2011 peat production in Alaska based on data from the *2011 Minerals Yearbook: Peat* (USGS 2012). Updating this 2011 input value resulted in a 0.32 percent decrease compared to the previous Inventory report's 2011 emission estimate.

Planned Improvements

In order to further improve estimates of CO₂ and N₂O emissions from *Peatlands Remaining Peatlands*, future efforts will consider options for obtaining better data on the quantity of peat harvested per hectare and the total area undergoing peat extraction. Additionally, a review will be conducted of the soon to be published *2013 Supplement to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories: Wetlands*, which gives additional national-level inventory methodological guidance on Wetlands, to identify methodologies that are applicable to the United States, and to revise the methodologies for estimating emissions from *Wetlands Remaining Wetlands* accordingly.

7.8 Settlements Remaining Settlements

Changes in Carbon Stocks in Urban Trees (IPCC Source Category 5E1)

Urban forests constitute a significant portion of the total U.S. tree canopy cover (Dwyer et al. 2000). Urban areas (cities, towns, and villages) are estimated to cover over 3 percent of the United States (U.S. Census Bureau 2012). With an average tree canopy cover of 35 percent, urban areas account for approximately 5 percent of total tree cover in the continental United States (Nowak and Greenfield 2012). Trees in urban areas of the United States were estimated to account for an average annual net sequestration of 75.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (20.5 Tg C) over the period from 1990 through 2012. Net C flux from urban trees in 2012 was estimated to be -88.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (-24.1 Tg C). Annual estimates of CO₂ flux (Table 7-45) were developed based on periodic (1990, 2000, and 2010) U.S. Census data on urbanized area. The estimate of urbanized area is smaller than the area categorized as *Settlements* in the Representation of the U.S. Land Base developed for this report, by an average of 48 percent over the 1990 through 2012 time series—i.e., the Census urban area is a subset of the *Settlements* area.

In 2012, urban area was about 44 percent smaller than the total area defined as *Settlements*. Census area data are preferentially used to develop C flux estimates for this source category since these data are more applicable for use with the available peer-reviewed data on urban tree canopy cover and urban tree C sequestration. Annual sequestration increased by 46 percent between 1990 and 2012 due to increases in urban land area. Data on C storage and urban tree coverage were collected since the early 1990s and have been applied to the entire time series in this report. As a result, the estimates presented in this chapter are not truly representative of changes in C stocks in urban trees for *Settlements* areas, but are representative of changes in C stocks in urban trees for Census urban area. The method used in this report does not attempt to scale these estimates to the *Settlements* area. Therefore, the estimates presented in this chapter are likely an underestimate of the true changes in C stocks in urban trees in all *Settlements* areas—i.e., the changes in C stocks in urban trees presented in this chapter are a subset of the changes in C stocks in urban trees in all *Settlements* areas.

Urban trees often grow faster than forest trees because of the relatively open structure of the urban forest (Nowak and Crane 2002). However, areas in each case are accounted for differently. Because urban areas contain less tree coverage than forest areas, the C storage per hectare of land is in fact smaller for urban areas. However, urban tree reporting occurs on a basis of C sequestered per unit area of tree cover, rather than C sequestered per total land area. Expressed per unit of tree cover, areas covered by urban trees have a greater C density than do forested areas (Nowak and Crane 2002). Expressed per unit of land area, however, the situation is the opposite: urban areas have a smaller C density than forest areas.

Table 7-45: Net C Flux from Urban Trees (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Tg C)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Tg C
1990	(60.4)	(16.5)
2005	(80.5)	(22.0)
2008	(83.9)	(22.9)
2009	(85.0)	(23.2)

2010	(86.1)	(23.5)
2011	(87.3)	(23.8)
2012	(88.4)	(24.1)

Note: Parentheses indicate net sequestration.

Methodology

Methods for quantifying urban tree biomass, C sequestration, and C emissions from tree mortality and decomposition were taken directly from Nowak et al. (2013), Nowak and Crane (2002), and Nowak (1994). In general, the methodology used by Nowak et al. (2013) to estimate net C sequestration in urban trees followed three steps. First, field data from cities and states were used to generate allometric estimates of biomass from measured tree dimensions. Second, estimates of annual tree growth and biomass increment were generated from published literature and adjusted for tree condition, land-use class, and growing season to generate estimates of gross C sequestration in urban trees for all 50 states and the District of Columbia. Third, estimates of C emissions due to mortality and decomposition were subtracted from gross C sequestration values to derive estimates of net C sequestration. Finally, sequestration estimates for all 50 states and the District of Columbia, in units of C sequestered per unit area of tree cover, were used to estimate urban forest C sequestration in the United States by using urban area estimates from U.S. Census data and urban tree cover percentage estimates for each state and the District of Columbia from remote sensing data, an approach consistent with Nowak et al. (2013).

This approach is also consistent with the default IPCC methodology in IPCC (2006), although sufficient data are not yet available to separately determine interannual gains and losses in C stocks in the living biomass of urban trees.

In order to generate the allometric relationships between tree dimensions and tree biomass for cities and states, Nowak et al. (2013) and previously published research (Nowak and Crane 2002; and Nowak 1994, 2007c, and 2009) collected field measurements in a number of U.S. cities between 1989 and 2012. For a sample of trees in each of the cities in Table 7-46, data including tree measurements of stem diameter, tree height, crown height and crown width, and information on location, species, and canopy condition were collected. The data for each tree were converted into C storage by applying allometric equations to estimate aboveground biomass, a root-to-shoot ratio to convert aboveground biomass estimates to whole tree biomass, moisture content, a C content of 50 percent (dry weight basis), and an adjustment factor of 0.8 to account for urban trees having less aboveground biomass for a given stem diameter than predicted by allometric equations based on forest trees (Nowak 1994). C storage estimates for deciduous trees include only C stored in wood. These calculations were then used to develop an allometric equation relating tree dimensions to C storage for each species of tree, encompassing a range of diameters.

Tree growth was estimated using annual height growth and diameter growth rates for specific land uses and diameter classes. Growth calculations were adjusted by a factor to account for tree condition (fair to excellent, poor, critical, dying, or dead). For each tree, the difference in C storage estimates between year 1 and year (x + 1) represents the gross amount of C sequestered. These annual gross C sequestration rates for each species (or genus), diameter class, and land-use condition (e.g., parks, transportation, vacant, golf courses) were then scaled up to city estimates using tree population information. The area of assessment for each city or state was defined by its political boundaries; parks and other forested urban areas were thus included in sequestration estimates (Nowak 2011).

Most of the field data used to develop the methodology of Nowak et al. (2013) were analyzed using the U.S. Forest Service's Urban Forest Effects (UFORE) model. UFORE is a computer model that uses standardized field data from random plots in each city and local air pollution and meteorological data to quantify urban forest structure, values of the urban forest, and environmental effects, including total C stored and annual C sequestration. UFORE was used with field data from a stratified random sample of plots in each city to quantify the characteristics of the urban forest. (Nowak et al. 2007a).

Where gross C sequestration accounts for all carbon sequestered, net C sequestration takes into account carbon emissions associated with urban trees. Net C emissions include tree death and removals. Estimates of net C emissions from urban trees were derived by applying estimates of annual mortality and condition, and assumptions about whether dead trees were removed from the site to the total C stock estimate for each city. Estimates of annual mortality rates by diameter class and condition class were derived from a study of street-tree mortality (Nowak 1986). Different decomposition rates were applied to dead trees left standing compared with those removed from

the site. For removed trees, different rates were applied to the removed/aboveground biomass in contrast to the belowground biomass. The estimated annual gross C emission rates for each species (or genus), diameter class, and condition class were then scaled up to city estimates using tree population information.

The data for all 50 states and the District of Columbia are described in Nowak et al. (2013), which builds upon previous research, including: Nowak and Crane (2002), Nowak et al. (2007a), and references cited therein. The allometric equations applied to the field data for each tree were taken from the scientific literature (see Nowak 1994, Nowak et al. 2002), but if no allometric equation could be found for the particular species, the average result for the genus was used. The adjustment (0.8) to account for less live tree biomass in urban trees was based on information in Nowak (1994). Measured tree growth rates for street (Frelich 1992; Fleming 1988; Nowak 1994), park (deVries 1987), and forest (Smith and Shifley 1984) trees were standardized to an average length of growing season (153 frost free days) and adjusted for site competition and tree condition. Standardized growth rates of trees of the same species or genus were then compared to determine the average difference between standardized street tree growth and standardized park and forest growth rates. Crown light exposure (CLE) measurements (number of sides and/or top of tree exposed to sunlight) were used to represent forest, park, and open (street) tree growth conditions. Local tree base growth rates (BG) were then calculated as the average standardized growth rate for open-grown trees multiplied by the number of frost free days divided by 153. Growth rates were then adjusted for CLE. The CLE adjusted growth rate was then adjusted based on tree health and tree condition to determine the final growth rate. Assumptions for which dead trees would be removed versus left standing were developed specific to each land use and were based on expert judgment of the authors. Decomposition rates were based on literature estimates (Nowak et al. 2013).

Estimates of gross and net sequestration rates for each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia (Table 7-46) were compiled in units of C sequestration per unit area of tree canopy cover. These rates were used in conjunction with estimates of state urban area and urban tree cover data to calculate each state's annual net C sequestration by urban trees. This method was described in Nowak et al. (2013) and has been modified to incorporate U.S. Census data.

Specifically, urban area estimates were based on 1990, 2000, and 2010 U.S. Census data. The 1990 U.S. Census defined urban land as "urbanized areas," which included land with a population density greater than 1,000 people per square mile, and adjacent "urban places," which had predefined political boundaries and a population total greater than 2,500. In 2000, the U.S. Census replaced the "urban places" category with a new category of urban land called an "urban cluster," which included areas with more than 500 people per square mile. In 2010, the Census updated its definitions to have "urban areas" encompassing Census tract delineated cities with 50,000 or more people, and "urban clusters" containing Census tract delineated locations with between 2,500 and 50,000 people. Urban land area increased by approximately 23 percent from 1990 to 2000 and 14 percent from 2000 to 2010; Nowak et al. (2005) estimate that the changes in the definition of urban land are responsible for approximately 20 percent of the total reported increase in urban land area from 1990 to 2000. Under all Census (i.e., 1990, 2000, and 2010) definitions, the urban category encompasses most cities, towns, and villages (i.e., it includes both urban and suburban areas). *Settlements* area, as assessed in the Representation of the U.S. Land Base developed for this report, encompassed all developed parcels greater than 0.1 hectares in size, including rural transportation corridors, and as previously mentioned represents a larger area than the Census-derived urban area estimates. However, the smaller, Census-derived urban area estimates were deemed to be more suitable for estimating national urban tree cover given the data available in the peer-reviewed literature (i.e., the data set available is consistent with Census urban rather than *Settlements* areas), and the recognized overlap in the changes in C stocks between urban forest and non-urban forest (see Planned Improvements below). US Census urban area data is reported as a series of continuous blocks of urban area in each state. The blocks or urban area were summed to create each state's urban area estimate.

Net annual C sequestration estimates were derived for all 50 states and the District of Columbia by multiplying the gross annual emission estimates by 0.74, the standard ratio for net/gross sequestration set out in Table 3 of Nowak et al. (2013) (unless data existed for both gross and net sequestration for the state in Table 2 of Nowak et al. (2013), in which case they were divided to get a state-specific ratio). The gross and net annual C sequestration values for each state were multiplied by each state's area of tree cover, which was the product of the state's urban/community area as defined in the U.S. Census (2012) and the state's urban/community tree cover percentage. The urban/community tree cover percentage estimates for all 50 states were obtained from Nowak and Greenfield (2012), which compiled ten years of research including Dwyer et al. (2000), Nowak et al. (2002), Nowak (2007a), and Nowak (2009). The urban/community tree cover percentage estimate for the District of Columbia was obtained

from Nowak et al. (2013). The urban area estimates were taken from the 2010 U.S. Census (2012). The equation, used to calculate the summed carbon sequestration amounts, can be written as follows:

$$\text{Net annual C sequestration} = \frac{\text{Gross sequestration rate} \times \text{Net to Gross sequestration ratio} \times \text{Urban Area} \times \%}{\text{Tree Cover}}$$

Table 7-46: Annual C Sequestration (Metric Tons C/yr), Tree Cover (Percent), and Annual C Sequestration per Area of Tree Cover (kg C/m²-yr) for 50 states plus the District of Columbia

State	Gross Annual Sequestration	Net Annual Sequestration	Tree Cover	Gross Annual Sequestration per Area of Tree Cover	Net Annual Sequestration per Area of Tree Cover	Net: Gross Annual Sequestration Ratio
Alabama	1,123,944	831,718	55.2	0.343	0.254	0.74
Alaska	44,895	33,223	39.8	0.168	0.124	0.74
Arizona	369,243	273,239	17.6	0.354	0.262	0.74
Arkansas	411,363	304,409	42.3	0.331	0.245	0.74
California	2,092,278	1,548,286	25.1	0.389	0.288	0.74
Colorado	149,005	110,264	18.5	0.197	0.146	0.74
Connecticut	766,512	567,219	67.4	0.239	0.177	0.74
Delaware	129,813	96,062	35.0	0.335	0.248	0.74
DC	14,557	11,568	35.0	0.263	0.209	0.79
Florida	3,331,471	2,465,288	35.5	0.475	0.352	0.74
Georgia	2,476,627	1,832,704	54.1	0.353	0.261	0.74
Hawaii	241,105	178,417	39.9	0.581	0.430	0.74
Idaho	24,658	18,247	10.0	0.184	0.136	0.74
Illinois	747,411	553,084	25.4	0.283	0.209	0.74
Indiana	396,776	366,882	23.7	0.250	0.231	0.92
Iowa	115,796	85,689	19.0	0.240	0.178	0.74
Kansas	182,154	141,747	25.0	0.283	0.220	0.78
Kentucky	237,287	175,592	22.1	0.286	0.212	0.74
Louisiana	727,949	538,683	34.9	0.397	0.294	0.74
Maine	107,875	79,827	52.3	0.221	0.164	0.74
Maryland	586,554	434,050	34.3	0.323	0.239	0.74
Massachusetts	1,294,359	957,826	65.1	0.254	0.188	0.74
Michigan	731,314	541,172	35.0	0.220	0.163	0.74
Minnesota	349,007	258,265	34.0	0.229	0.169	0.74
Mississippi	480,298	355,421	47.3	0.344	0.255	0.74
Missouri	488,287	361,332	31.5	0.285	0.211	0.74
Montana	52,675	38,980	36.3	0.184	0.136	0.74
Nebraska	49,685	41,927	15.0	0.238	0.201	0.84
Nevada	41,797	30,929	9.6	0.207	0.153	0.74
New Hampshire	244,715	181,089	66.0	0.217	0.161	0.74
New Jersey	1,192,996	882,817	53.3	0.294	0.218	0.74
New Mexico	68,789	50,904	12.0	0.263	0.195	0.74
New York	1,090,092	806,668	42.6	0.240	0.178	0.74
North Carolina	1,989,946	1,472,560	51.1	0.312	0.231	0.74
North Dakota	14,372	6,829	13.0	0.223	0.106	0.48
Ohio	910,839	674,021	31.5	0.248	0.184	0.74
Oklahoma	358,363	265,189	31.2	0.332	0.246	0.74
Oregon	257,480	190,535	36.6	0.242	0.179	0.74
Pennsylvania	1,241,922	919,022	41.0	0.244	0.181	0.74
Rhode Island	136,841	101,262	51.0	0.258	0.191	0.74
South Carolina	1,063,705	787,141	48.9	0.338	0.250	0.74
South Dakota	20,356	17,653	14.0	0.236	0.205	0.87
Tennessee	1,030,972	921,810	43.8	0.303	0.271	0.89
Texas	2,712,954	2,007,586	31.4	0.368	0.272	0.74
Utah	87,623	64,841	16.4	0.215	0.159	0.74

Vermont	46,111	34,122	53.0	0.213	0.158	0.74
Virginia	822,286	608,492	39.8	0.293	0.217	0.74
Washington	560,055	414,440	34.6	0.258	0.191	0.74
West Virginia	249,592	184,698	61.0	0.241	0.178	0.74
Wisconsin	356,405	263,739	31.8	0.225	0.167	0.74
Wyoming	18,726	13,857	19.9	0.182	0.135	0.74

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Uncertainty associated with changes in C stocks in urban trees includes the uncertainty associated with urban area, percent urban tree coverage, and estimates of gross and net C sequestration for each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia. A 10 percent uncertainty was associated with urban area estimates based on expert judgment.

Uncertainty associated with estimates of percent urban tree coverage for each of the 50 states was based on standard error estimates reported by Nowak and Greenfield (2012). Uncertainty associated with estimate of percent urban tree coverage for the District of Columbia was based on the standard error estimate reported by Nowak et al. (2013). Uncertainty associated with estimates of gross and net C sequestration for each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia was based on standard error estimates for each of the state-level sequestration estimates reported by Nowak et al. (2013). These estimates are based on field data collected in each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia, and uncertainty in these estimates increases as they are scaled up to the national level.

Additional uncertainty is associated with the biomass equations, conversion factors, and decomposition assumptions used to calculate C sequestration and emission estimates (Nowak et al. 2002). These results also exclude changes in soil C stocks, and there may be some overlap between the urban tree C estimates and the forest tree C estimates. Due to data limitations, urban soil flux is not quantified as part of this analysis, while reconciliation of urban tree and forest tree estimates will be addressed through the land-representation effort described in the Planned Improvements section of this chapter.

A Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was applied to estimate the overall uncertainty of the sequestration estimate. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-47. The net C flux from changes in C stocks in urban trees in 2012 was estimated to be between -130.2 and -46.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 47 percent more sequestration to 47 percent less sequestration than the 2012 flux estimate of -88.4 Tg CO₂ Eq.

The 2012 uncertainty estimates are greater than those of 2011 due to the revised methodology which has a high uncertainty dependence (99 percent) on one variable—the standard ratio for net/gross sequestration (or 0.74) (Nowak et al. 2013). This variable has a high uncertainty bound which was calculated using the standard errors of the two variables (average net sequestration and average gross sequestration) that were used in calculating the ratio.

Table 7-47: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Net C Flux from Changes in C Stocks in Urban Trees (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate ^a			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Changes in C Stocks in Urban Trees	CO ₂	(88.4)	(130.2)	(46.5)	47%	-47%

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values or net sequestration.

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

Tier 1 and Tier 2 QA/QC activities were conducted consistent with the U.S. QA/QC plan. Source-specific quality control measures for urban trees included checking input data, documentation, and calculations to ensure data were properly handled through the inventory process. Errors that were found during this process were corrected as

necessary. The net C flux resulting from urban trees was predominately calculated using state and city-specific estimates of gross and net C sequestration estimates for urban trees and urban tree coverage area published in the literature. The validity of these data for their use in this section of the inventory was evaluated through correspondence established with Dr. David J. Nowak, author of the papers. Through this correspondence, the methods used to collect the urban tree sequestration and area data were further clarified and the use of these data in the inventory was reviewed and validated (Nowak 2002a, 2007b, 2011, and Nowak et al. 2013).

Recalculations

The 1990 to 2011 net C flux estimates were recalculated relative to the previous Inventory because of a major change in methodology. Previously, data from 28 cities were used to inform a national estimate of net sequestration per unit tree cover. The sequestration per unit tree cover was multiplied along with a value of national urban area and an estimated national tree cover percentage to get urban tree carbon sequestration. The new methodology in the current inventory uses reported state level estimates of gross sequestration, state level totals for urban area, and state level urban tree cover percentages. The change in methodology resulted in an average annual net sequestration increase of 16.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. (28 percent) in urban trees compared to the previous report across the entire time-series.

Planned Improvements

A consistent representation of the managed land base in the United States is discussed at the beginning of the *Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry* chapter, and discusses a planned improvement by the USDA Forest Service to reconcile the overlap between urban forest and non-urban forest greenhouse gas inventories. Urban forest inventories are including areas also defined as forest land under the Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program of the USDA Forest Service, resulting in “double-counting” of these land areas in estimates of C stocks and fluxes for this report. For example, Nowak et al. (2013) estimates that 13.7 percent of urban land is measured by the forest inventory plots, and could be responsible for up to 87 Tg C of overlap.

Future research may also enable more complete coverage of changes in the C stock in urban trees for all Settlements land. To provide estimates for all Settlements, research would need to establish the extent of overlap between Settlements and Census-defined urban areas, and would have to characterize sequestration on non-urban Settlements land.

Direct N₂O Fluxes from Settlement Soils (IPCC Source Category 5E1)

Of the synthetic N fertilizers applied to soils in the United States, approximately 2.4 percent are currently applied to lawns, golf courses, and other landscaping occurring within settlement areas. Application rates are lower than those occurring on cropped soils, and, therefore, account for a smaller proportion of total U.S. soil N₂O emissions per unit area. In addition to synthetic N fertilizers, a portion of surface applied sewage sludge is applied to settlement areas. In 2012, N₂O emissions from settlement soils were 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4.7 Gg). There was an overall increase of 48 percent over the period from 1990 through 2012 due to a general increase in the application of synthetic N fertilizers to an expanding settlement area. Interannual variability in these emissions is directly attributable to interannual variability in total synthetic fertilizer consumption and sewage sludge applications in the United States. Emissions from this source are summarized in Table 7-48.

Table 7-48: Direct N₂O Fluxes from Soils in *Settlements Remaining Settlements* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Gg N₂O)

Year	Tg CO ₂ Eq.	Gg N ₂ O
1990	1.0	3.2
2005	1.5	4.7
2008	1.5	4.7
2009	1.4	4.5

2010	1.5	4.8
2011	1.5	4.9
2012	1.5	4.7

Note: These estimates include direct N₂O emissions from N fertilizer additions only. Indirect N₂O emissions from fertilizer additions are reported in the Agriculture chapter. These estimates include emissions from both *Settlements Remaining Settlements* and from *Land Converted to Settlements*.

Methodology

For soils within *Settlements Remaining Settlements*, the IPCC Tier 1 approach was used to estimate soil N₂O emissions from synthetic N fertilizer and sewage sludge additions. Estimates of direct N₂O emissions from soils in settlements were based on the amount of N in synthetic commercial fertilizers applied to settlement soils, and the amount of N in sewage sludge applied to non-agricultural land and surface disposal of sewage sludge (see Annex 3.11 for a detailed discussion of the methodology for estimating sewage sludge application).

Nitrogen applications to settlement soils are estimated using data compiled by the USGS (Ruddy et al. 2006). The USGS estimated on-farm and non-farm fertilizer use is based on sales records at the county level from 1982 through 2001 (Ruddy et al. 2006). Non-farm N fertilizer was assumed to be applied to settlements and forest lands; values for 2002 through 2008 were based on 2001 values adjusted for annual total N fertilizer sales in the United States because there is no new activity data on application after 2001. Settlement application was calculated by subtracting forest application from total non-farm fertilizer use. Sewage sludge applications were derived from national data on sewage sludge generation, disposition, and N content (see Annex 3.11 for further detail). The total amount of N resulting from these sources was multiplied by the IPCC default emission factor for applied N (1 percent) to estimate direct N₂O emissions (IPCC 2006). The volatilized and leached/runoff N fractions for settlements, calculated with the IPCC default volatilization factors (10 or 20 percent, respectively, for synthetic or organic N fertilizers) and leaching/runoff factor for wet areas (30 percent), were included with indirect emissions, as reported in the N₂O Emissions from Agricultural Soil Management source category of the Agriculture chapter (consistent with reporting guidance that all indirect emissions are included in the Agricultural Soil Management source category).

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The amount of N₂O emitted from settlements depends not only on N inputs and fertilized area, but also on a large number of variables, including organic C availability, oxygen gas partial pressure, soil moisture content, pH, temperature, and irrigation/watering practices. The effect of the combined interaction of these variables on N₂O flux is complex and highly uncertain. The IPCC default methodology does not explicitly incorporate any of these variables, except variations in fertilizer N and sewage sludge application rates. All settlement soils are treated equivalently under this methodology.

Uncertainties exist in both the fertilizer N and sewage sludge application rates in addition to the emission factors. Uncertainty in fertilizer N application was assigned a default level of ±50 percent.²⁴¹ Uncertainty in the amounts of sewage sludge applied to non-agricultural lands and used in surface disposal was derived from variability in several factors, including: (1) N content of sewage sludge; (2) total sludge applied in 2000; (3) wastewater existing flow in 1996 and 2000; and (4) the sewage sludge disposal practice distributions to non-agricultural land application and surface disposal. Uncertainty in the emission factors was provided by the IPCC (2006).

Quantitative uncertainty of this source category was estimated through the IPCC-recommended Tier 2 uncertainty estimation methodology. The uncertainty ranges around the 2005 activity data and emission factor input variables

²⁴¹ No uncertainty is provided with the USGS fertilizer consumption data (Ruddy et al. 2006) so a conservative ±50% was used in the analysis.

were directly applied to the 2012 emission estimates. The results of the quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-49. N₂O emissions from soils in Settlements Remaining Settlements in 2012 were estimated to be between 0.7 and 3.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level. This indicates a range of 49 percent below to 163 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 1.5 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 7-49: Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates of N₂O Emissions from Soils in *Settlements Remaining Settlements* (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Settlements Remaining Settlements: N ₂ O Fluxes from Soils	N ₂ O	1.5	0.7	3.8	-49%	163%

Note: This estimate includes direct N₂O emissions from N fertilizer additions to both *Settlements Remaining Settlements* and from *Land Converted to Settlements*.

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Planned Improvements

A minor improvement is planned to update the uncertainty analysis for direct emissions from settlements to be consistent with the most recent activity data for this source.

7.9 Land Converted to Settlements (IPCC Source Category 5E2)

Land-use change is constantly occurring, and land under a number of uses undergoes urbanization in the United States each year. However, data on the amount of land converted to settlements is currently lacking. Given the lack of available information relevant to this particular IPCC source category, it is not possible to separate CO₂ or N₂O fluxes on *Land Converted to Settlements* from fluxes on *Settlements Remaining Settlements* at this time.

7.10 Other (IPCC Source Category 5G)

Changes in Yard Trimming and Food Scrap Carbon Stocks in Landfills

In the United States, yard trimmings (i.e., grass clippings, leaves, and branches) and food scraps account for a significant portion of the municipal waste stream, and a large fraction of the collected yard trimmings and food scraps are discarded in landfills. Carbon contained in landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps can be stored for very long periods.

Carbon storage estimates are associated with particular land uses. For example, harvested wood products are accounted for under *Forest Land Remaining Forest Land* because these wood products are considered a component of the forest ecosystem. The wood products serve as reservoirs to which C resulting from photosynthesis in trees is transferred, but the removals in this case occur in the forest. Carbon stock changes in yard trimmings and food scraps are associated with settlements, but removals in this case do not occur within settlements. To address this complexity, yard trimming and food scrap C storage is reported under the “Other” source category.

Both the amount of yard trimmings collected annually and the fraction that is landfilled have declined over the last decade. In 1990, over 53 million metric tons (wet weight) of yard trimmings and food scraps were generated (i.e., put at the curb for collection to be taken to disposal sites or to composting facilities) (EPA 2014; Schneider 2007, 2008). Since then, programs banning or discouraging yard trimmings disposal have led to an increase in backyard composting and the use of mulching mowers, and a consequent 3 percent decrease in the tonnage of yard trimmings generated (i.e., collected for composting or disposal). At the same time, an increase in the number of municipal composting facilities has reduced the proportion of collected yard trimmings that are discarded in landfills—from 72 percent in 1990 to 35 percent in 2012. The net effect of the reduction in generation and the increase in composting is a 53 percent decrease in the quantity of yard trimmings disposed of in landfills since 1990.

Food scrap generation has grown by 53 percent since 1990, and though the proportion of food scraps discarded in landfills has decreased slightly from 82 percent in 1990 to 78 percent in 2012, the tonnage disposed of in landfills has increased considerably (by 47 percent). Overall, the decrease in the landfill disposal rate of yard trimmings has more than compensated for the increase in food scrap disposal in landfills, and the net result is a decrease in annual landfill C storage from 24.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (6.6 Tg C) in 1990 to 13.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (3.6 Tg C) in 2012 (Table 7-50 and Table 7-51).

Table 7-50: Net Changes in Yard Trimming and Food Scrap Carbon Stocks in Landfills (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Carbon Pool	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Yard Trimmings	(21.0)	(7.4)	(7.0)	(8.5)	(9.3)	(9.4)	(9.3)
Grass	(1.8)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(0.8)	(0.9)	(0.9)	(0.9)
Leaves	(9.0)	(3.4)	(3.2)	(3.9)	(4.2)	(4.3)	(4.3)
Branches	(10.2)	(3.4)	(3.1)	(3.8)	(4.1)	(4.2)	(4.2)
Food Scraps	(3.2)	(4.6)	(4.2)	(4.4)	(4.3)	(4.1)	(3.7)
Total Net Flux	(24.2)	(12.0)	(11.2)	(12.9)	(13.6)	(13.5)	(13.0)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values

Table 7-51: Net Changes in Yard Trimming and Food Scrap Carbon Stocks in Landfills (Tg C)

Carbon Pool	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Yard Trimmings	(5.7)	(2.0)	(1.9)	(2.3)	(2.5)	(2.6)	(2.5)
Grass	(0.5)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.2)
Leaves	(2.5)	(0.9)	(0.9)	(1.1)	(1.1)	(1.2)	(1.2)
Branches	(2.8)	(0.9)	(0.9)	(1.0)	(1.1)	(1.1)	(1.1)
Food Scraps	(0.9)	(1.3)	(1.1)	(1.2)	(1.2)	(1.1)	(1.0)
Total Net Flux	(6.6)	(3.3)	(3.0)	(3.5)	(3.7)	(3.7)	(3.6)

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding. Parentheses indicate negative values

Methodology

When wastes of biogenic origin (such as yard trimmings and food scraps) are landfilled and do not completely decompose, the C that remains is effectively removed from the global C cycle. Empirical evidence indicates that yard trimmings and food scraps do not completely decompose in landfills (Barlaz 1998, 2005, 2008; De la Cruz and Barlaz 2010), and thus the stock of C in landfills can increase, with the net effect being a net atmospheric removal of C. Estimates of net C flux resulting from landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps were developed by estimating the change in landfilled C stocks between inventory years, based on methodologies presented for the *Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry* sector in IPCC (2003). Carbon stock estimates were calculated by determining the mass of landfilled C resulting from yard trimmings or food scraps discarded in a given year; adding the accumulated landfilled C from previous years; and subtracting the mass of C that was landfilled in previous years that decomposed.

To determine the total landfilled C stocks for a given year, the following were estimated: (1) the composition of the yard trimmings; (2) the mass of yard trimmings and food scraps discarded in landfills; (3) the C storage factor of the landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps; and (4) the rate of decomposition of the degradable C. The composition of yard trimmings was assumed to be 30 percent grass clippings, 40 percent leaves, and 30 percent branches on a

wet weight basis (Oshins and Block 2000). The yard trimmings were subdivided, because each component has its own unique adjusted C storage factor (i.e., moisture content and C content) and rate of decomposition. The mass of yard trimmings and food scraps disposed of in landfills was estimated by multiplying the quantity of yard trimmings and food scraps discarded by the proportion of discards managed in landfills. Data on discards (i.e., the amount generated minus the amount diverted to centralized composting facilities) for both yard trimmings and food scraps were taken primarily from *Municipal Solid Waste Generation, Recycling, and Disposal in the United States: 2012 Facts and Figures* (EPA 2014), which provides data for 1960, 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, 2005, 2008 and 2010 through 2012. To provide data for some of the missing years, detailed backup data were obtained from Schneider (2007, 2008). Remaining years in the time series for which data were not provided were estimated using linear interpolation. The EPA (2014) report does not subdivide the discards (i.e., total generated minus composted) of individual materials into volumes landfilled and combusted, although it provides a volume of overall waste stream discards managed in landfills²⁴² and combustors with energy recovery (i.e., ranging from 100 percent and 0 percent, respectively, in 1960 to 81 percent and 19 percent in 2000); it is assumed that the proportion of each individual material (food scraps, grass, leaves, branches) that is landfilled is the same as the proportion across the overall waste stream.

The amount of C disposed of in landfills each year, starting in 1960, was estimated by converting the discarded landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps from a wet weight to a dry weight basis, and then multiplying by the initial (i.e., pre-decomposition) C content (as a fraction of dry weight). The dry weight of landfilled material was calculated using dry weight to wet weight ratios (Tchobanoglous et al. 1993, cited by Barlaz 1998) and the initial C contents and the C storage factors were determined by Barlaz (1998, 2005, 2008) (Table 7-52).

The amount of C remaining in the landfill for each subsequent year was tracked based on a simple model of C fate. As demonstrated by Barlaz (1998, 2005, 2008), a portion of the initial C resists decomposition and is essentially persistent in the landfill environment. Barlaz (1998, 2005, 2008) conducted a series of experiments designed to measure biodegradation of yard trimmings, food scraps, and other materials, in conditions designed to promote decomposition (i.e., by providing ample moisture and nutrients). After measuring the initial C content, the materials were placed in sealed containers along with methanogenic microbes from a landfill. Once decomposition was complete, the yard trimmings and food scraps were re-analyzed for C content; the C remaining in the solid sample can be expressed as a proportion of initial C (shown in the row labeled “C Storage Factor, Proportion of Initial C Stored (%)” in Table 7-52).

The modeling approach applied to simulate U.S. landfill C flows builds on the findings of Barlaz (1998, 2005, 2008). The proportion of C stored is assumed to persist in landfills. The remaining portion is assumed to degrade over time, resulting in emissions of CH₄ and CO₂. (The CH₄ emissions resulting from decomposition of yard trimmings and food scraps are accounted for in the *Waste* chapter.) The degradable portion of the C is assumed to decay according to first-order kinetics. The decay rates for each of the materials are shown in Table 7-52.

The first-order decay rates, k , for each component were derived from De la Cruz and Barlaz (2010). De la Cruz and Barlaz (2010) calculate first-order decay rates using laboratory data published in Eleazer et al. (1997), and a correction factor, f , is found so that the weighted average decay rate for all components is equal to the AP-42 default decay rate (0.04) for mixed MSW for regions that receive more than 25 inches of rain annually. Because AP-42 values were developed using landfill data from approximately 1990, 1990 waste composition for the United States from EPA’s *Characterization of Municipal Solid Waste in the United States: 1990 Update* was used to calculate f . This correction factor is then multiplied by the Eleazer et al. (1997) decay rates of each waste component to develop field-scale first-order decay rates.

De la Cruz and Barlaz (2010) also use other assumed initial decay rates for mixed MSW in place of the AP-42 default value based on different types of environments in which landfills in the United States are found, including dry conditions (less than 25 inches of rain annually, $k=0.02$) and bioreactor landfill conditions (moisture is controlled for rapid decomposition, $k=0.12$). The *Landfills* section of the Inventory (which estimates CH₄ emissions) estimates the overall MSW decay rate by partitioning the U.S. landfill population into three categories,

²⁴² EPA (2013) reports discards in two categories: “combustion with energy recovery” and “landfill, other disposal,” which includes combustion without energy recovery. For years in which there is data from previous EPA reports on combustion without energy recovery, EPA assumes these estimates are still applicable. For 2000 to present, EPA assumes that any combustion of MSW that occurs includes energy recovery, so all discards to “landfill, other disposal” are assumed to go to landfills.

based on annual precipitation ranges of: (1) less than 20 inches of rain per year, (2) 20 to 40 inches of rain per year, and (3) greater than 40 inches of rain per year. These correspond to overall MSW decay rates of 0.020, 0.038, and 0.057 year⁻¹, respectively.

De la Cruz and Barlaz (2010) calculate component-specific decay rates corresponding to the first value (0.020 year⁻¹), but not for the other two overall MSW decay rates. To maintain consistency between landfill methodologies across the Inventory, the correction factors (*f*) were developed for decay rates of 0.038 and 0.057 year⁻¹ through linear interpolation. A weighted national average component-specific decay rate was calculated by assuming that waste generation is proportional to population (the same assumption used in the landfill methane emission estimate), based on population data from the 2000 U.S. Census. The component-specific decay rates are shown in Table 7-52.

For each of the four materials (grass, leaves, branches, food scraps), the stock of C in landfills for any given year is calculated according to the following formula:

$$LFC_{i,t} = \sum_n^t W_{i,n} \times (1 - MC_i) \times ICC_i \times \{ [CS_i \times ICC_i] + [(1 - (CS_i \times ICC_i)) \times e^{-k(t-n)}] \}$$

where,

- t* = Year for which C stocks are being estimated (year),
- i* = Waste type for which C stocks are being estimated (grass, leaves, branches, food scraps),
- LFC_{i,t}* = Stock of C in landfills in year *t*, for waste *i* (metric tons),
- W_{i,n}* = Mass of waste *i* disposed of in landfills in year *n* (metric tons, wet weight),
- n* = Year in which the waste was disposed of (year, where 1960 < *n* < *t*),
- MC_i* = Moisture content of waste *i* (percent of water),
- CS_i* = Proportion of initial C that is stored for waste *i* (percent),
- ICC_i* = Initial C content of waste *i* (percent),
- e* = Natural logarithm, and
- k* = First-order decay rate for waste *i*, (year⁻¹).

For a given year *t*, the total stock of C in landfills (*TLFC_t*) is the sum of stocks across all four materials (grass, leaves, branches, food scraps). The annual flux of C in landfills (*F_t*) for year *t* is calculated as the change in stock compared to the preceding year:

$$F_t = TLFC_t - TLFC_{(t-1)}$$

Thus, the C placed in a landfill in year *n* is tracked for each year *t* through the end of the inventory period (2012). For example, disposal of food scraps in 1960 resulted in depositing about 1,135,000 metric tons of C. Of this amount, 16 percent (179,000 metric tons) is persistent; the remaining 84 percent (956,000 metric tons) is degradable. By 1965, more than half of the degradable portion (518,000 metric tons) decomposes, leaving a total of 617,000 metric tons (the persistent portion, plus the remainder of the degradable portion).

Continuing the example, by 2012, the total food scraps C originally disposed of in 1960 had declined to 179,000 metric tons (i.e., virtually all degradable C had decomposed). By summing the C remaining from 1960 with the C remaining from food scraps disposed of in subsequent years (1961 through 2012), the total landfill C from food scraps in 2012 was 39.6 million metric tons. This value is then added to the C stock from grass, leaves, and branches to calculate the total landfill C stock in 2012, yielding a value of 258.4 million metric tons (as shown in Table 7-53). In exactly the same way total net flux is calculated for forest C and harvested wood products, the total net flux of landfill C for yard trimmings and food scraps for a given year (Table 7-51) is the difference in the landfill C stock for that year and the stock in the preceding year. For example, the net change in 2012 shown in Table 7-51 (3.6 Tg C) is equal to the stock in 2012 (258.4 Tg C) minus the stock in 2011 (254.9 Tg C).

The C stocks calculated through this procedure are shown in Table 7-53.

Table 7-52: Moisture Contents, C Storage Factors (Proportions of Initial C Sequestered), Initial C Contents, and Decay Rates for Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps in Landfills

Variable	Yard Trimmings			Food Scraps
	Grass	Leaves	Branches	
Moisture Content (% H ₂ O)	70	30	10	70

C Storage Factor, Proportion of Initial C				
Stored (%)	53	85	77	16
Initial C Content (%)	45	46	49	51
Decay Rate (year ⁻¹)	0.323	0.185	0.016	0.156

Table 7-53: C Stocks in Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps in Landfills (Tg C)

Carbon Pool	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Yard Trimmings	155.8	203.0	208.8	211.1	213.7	216.2	218.8
Branches	14.5	18.1	18.6	18.8	19.0	19.3	19.5
Leaves	66.7	87.4	90.0	91.1	92.2	93.4	94.6
Grass	74.6	97.5	100.2	101.2	102.4	103.5	104.6
Food Scraps	21.3	31.9	35.1	36.4	37.5	38.6	39.6
Total Carbon Stocks	177.2	234.9	244.0	247.5	251.2	254.9	258.4

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The uncertainty analysis for landfilled yard trimmings and food scraps includes an evaluation of the effects of uncertainty for the following data and factors: disposal in landfills per year (tons of C), initial C content, moisture content, decay rate, and proportion of C stored. The C storage landfill estimates are also a function of the composition of the yard trimmings (i.e., the proportions of grass, leaves and branches in the yard trimmings mixture). There are respective uncertainties associated with each of these factors.

A Monte Carlo (Tier 2) uncertainty analysis was applied to estimate the overall uncertainty of the sequestration estimate. The results of the Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 7-54. Total yard trimmings and food scraps CO₂ flux in 2012 was estimated to be between -19.8 and -5.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. at a 95 percent confidence level (or 19 of 20 Monte Carlo stochastic simulations). This indicates a range of 52 percent below to 60 percent above the 2012 flux estimate of -13.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. More information on the uncertainty estimates for Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps in Landfills is contained within the Uncertainty Annex.

Table 7-54: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CO₂ Flux from Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps in Landfills (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Flux Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Flux Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Yard Trimmings and Food Scraps	CO ₂	(13.0)	(19.8)	(5.2)	-52%	60%

^a Range of flux estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Note: Parentheses indicate negative values or net C sequestration.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation. The QA/QC analysis did not reveal any inaccuracies or incorrect input values.

Recalculations Discussion

The current Inventory has been revised relative to the previous report. Input data for 2012 was published in February 2014 in *Municipal Solid Waste Generation, Recycling, and Disposal in the United States: 2012 Facts and Figures* (EPA 2014), and several of the inputs were updated for previous years. The final C stock and C flux estimates changed because of the decomposition model (see Methodology for more information regarding the decomposition model), which calculates the C that remains from yard trimmings and food scraps that were landfilled in past years.

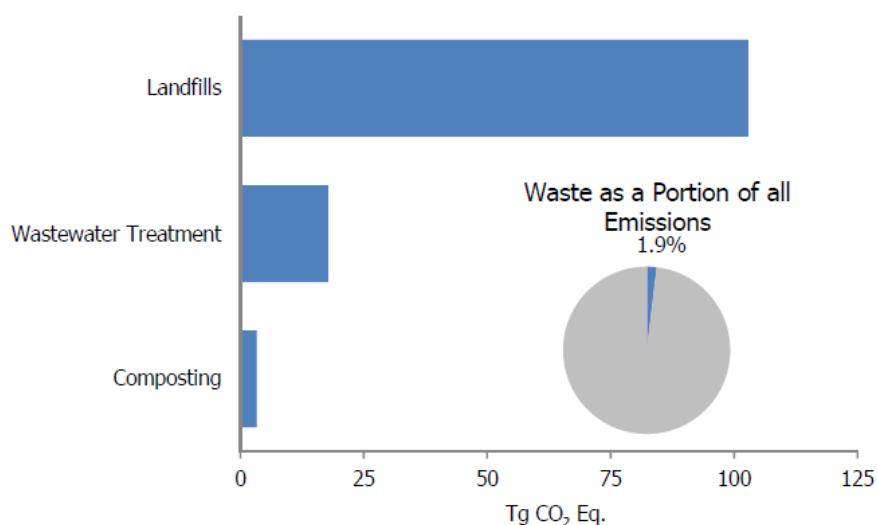
Planned Improvements

Future work is planned to evaluate the consistency between the estimates of C storage described in this chapter and the estimates of landfill CH₄ emissions described in the *Waste* chapter. For example, the *Waste* chapter does not distinguish landfill CH₄ emissions from yard trimmings and food scraps separately from landfill CH₄ emissions from total bulk (i.e., municipal solid) waste, which includes yard trimmings and food scraps.

8. Waste

Waste management and treatment activities are sources of greenhouse gas emissions (see Figure 8-1). Landfills accounted for approximately 18.1 percent of total U.S. anthropogenic methane (CH₄) emissions in 2012, the third largest contribution of any CH₄ source in the United States. Additionally, wastewater treatment and composting of organic waste accounted for approximately 2.2 percent and less than 1 percent of U.S. CH₄ emissions, respectively. Nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from the discharge of wastewater treatment effluents into aquatic environments were estimated, as were N₂O emissions from the treatment process itself. N₂O emissions from composting were also estimated. Together, these waste activities account for less than 2 percent of total U.S. N₂O emissions. Nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-CH₄ volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) are emitted by waste activities, and are addressed separately at the end of this chapter. A summary of greenhouse gas emissions from the Waste chapter is presented in Table 8-1 and Table 8-2.

Figure 8-1: 2012 Waste Chapter Greenhouse Gas Sources



Box 8-1: Methodological Approach for Estimating and Reporting U.S. Emissions and Sinks

In following the UNFCCC requirement under Article 4.1 to develop and submit national greenhouse gas emission inventories, the emissions and sinks presented in this report and this chapter, are organized by source and sink categories and calculated using internationally-accepted methods provided by the Intergovernmental Panel on

Climate Change (IPCC).²⁴³ Additionally, the calculated emissions and sinks in a given year for the United States are presented in a common manner in line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines for the reporting of inventories under this international agreement.²⁴⁴ The use of consistent methods to calculate emissions and sinks by all nations providing their inventories to the UNFCCC ensures that these reports are comparable. In this regard, U.S. emissions and sinks reported in this inventory report are comparable to emissions and sinks reported by other countries. Emissions and sinks provided in this inventory do not preclude alternative examinations,²⁴⁵ but rather this inventory presents emissions and sinks in a common format consistent with how countries are to report inventories under the UNFCCC. The report itself, and this chapter, follows this standardized format, and provides an explanation of the IPCC methods used to calculate emissions and sinks, and the manner in which those calculations are conducted.

Overall, in 2012, waste activities generated emissions of 124.0 Tg CO₂ Eq., or just under 2 percent of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions.

Table 8-1: Emissions from Waste (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	161.2	127.0	129.3	130.0	124.5	121.8	117.2
Landfills	147.8	112.1	114.3	115.3	109.9	107.4	102.8
Wastewater Treatment	13.2	13.3	13.3	13.1	13.0	12.8	12.8
Composting	0.3	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6
N₂O	3.8	6.2	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.7	6.8
Domestic Wastewater Treatment	3.5	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
Composting	0.4	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8
Total	165.0	133.2	136.0	136.5	131.1	128.5	124.0

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 8-2: Emissions from Waste (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	7,678	6,048	6,159	6,190	5,926	5,798	5,580
Landfills	7,036	5,339	5,444	5,492	5,234	5,112	4,897
Wastewater Treatment	626	635	635	623	619	611	608
Composting	15	75	80	75	73	75	76
N₂O	12	20	21	21	21	22	22
Domestic Wastewater Treatment	11	14	15	16	16	16	16
Composting	1	6	6	6	5	6	6

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Carbon dioxide, CH₄, and N₂O emissions from the incineration of waste are accounted for in the Energy sector rather than in the Waste sector because almost all incineration of municipal solid waste (MSW) in the United States occurs at waste-to-energy facilities where useful energy is recovered. Similarly, the Energy sector also includes an estimate of emissions from burning waste tires and hazardous industrial waste, because virtually all of the combustion occurs in industrial and utility boilers that recover energy. The incineration of waste in the United States

²⁴³ See <<http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/index.html>>.

²⁴⁴ See <http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/national_inventories_submissions/items/5270.php>.

²⁴⁵ For example, see <<http://www.epa.gov/aboutepa/oswer.html>>.

in 2012 resulted in 12.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. emissions, more than half of which is attributable to the combustion of plastics. For more details on emissions from the incineration of waste, see Section 3.3.

Methodological guidance for this chapter was taken from the *2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories*. This latest guidance from the IPCC best represents the understanding of emissions profiles from activities in the waste sector. The use of the most recently published calculation methodologies by the IPCC, as contained in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for waste source categories, is fully in line with the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* for methodological choice to improve rigor and accuracy. In addition, the improvements in using the latest methodological guidance from the IPCC has been recognized by the UNFCCC's Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice in the conclusions of its 30th Session.²⁴⁶ Numerous U.S. inventory experts were involved in the development of the 2006 IPCC Guidelines, and their expertise has provided this latest guidance from the IPCC with the most appropriate calculation methods that are then used in this chapter.

Box 8-2: Waste Data from the Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program

On October 30, 2009, the U.S. EPA published a rule for the mandatory reporting of greenhouse gases from large GHG emissions sources in the United States. Implementation of 40 CFR Part 98 is referred to as EPA's Greenhouse Gas Reporting Program (GHGRP). 40 CFR part 98 applies to direct greenhouse gas emitters, fossil fuel suppliers, industrial gas suppliers, and facilities that inject CO₂ underground for sequestration or other reasons and requires reporting by 41 industrial categories. Reporting is at the facility level, except for certain suppliers of fossil fuels and industrial greenhouse gases. In general, the threshold for reporting is 25,000 metric tons or more of CO₂ Eq. per year.

EPA's GHGRP dataset and the data presented in this inventory report are complementary and, as indicated in the respective planned improvements sections for source categories in this chapter, EPA is analyzing how to use facility-level GHGRP data to improve the national estimates presented in this inventory. Most methodologies used in EPA's GHGRP are consistent with IPCC, though for EPA's GHGRP, facilities collect detailed information specific to their operations according to detailed measurement standards. This may differ with the more aggregated data collected for the inventory to estimate total, national U.S. emissions. It should be noted that the definitions for source categories in the GHGRP may differ from those used in this inventory in meeting the UNFCCC reporting guidelines. In line with the UNFCCC reporting guidelines, the inventory report is a comprehensive accounting of all emissions from source categories identified in the IPCC guidelines. Further information on the reporting categorizations in EPA's GHGRP and specific data caveats associated with monitoring methods in EPA's GHGRP has been provided on the EPA's GHGRP website.²⁴⁷

EPA presents the data collected by EPA's GHGRP through a data publication tool²⁴⁸ that allows data to be viewed in several formats including maps, tables, charts and graphs for individual facilities or groups of facilities.

²⁴⁶ These Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA) conclusions state, "The SBSTA acknowledged that the 2006 IPCC Guidelines contain the most recent scientific methodologies available to estimate emissions by sources and removals by sinks of greenhouse gases (GHGs) not controlled by the Montreal Protocol, and recognized that Parties have gained experience with the 2006 IPCC Guidelines. The SBSTA also acknowledged that the information contained in the 2006 IPCC Guidelines enables Parties to further improve the quality of their GHG inventories." See <<http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2009/sbsta/eng/03.pdf>>

²⁴⁷ See <<http://www.ccdsupport.com/confluence/display/ghgp/Detailed+Description+of+Data+for+Certain+Sources+and+Processes>>.

²⁴⁸ See <<http://ghgdata.epa.gov>>.

8.1 Landfills (IPCC Source Category 6A1)

In the United States, solid waste is managed by landfilling, recovery through recycling or composting, and combustion through waste-to-energy facilities. Disposing of solid waste in modern, managed landfills is the most commonly used waste management technique in the United States. More information on how solid waste data are collected and managed in the United States is provided in Box 8-1 and Box 8-2. The municipal solid waste (MSW) and industrial waste landfills referred to in this section are all modern landfills that must comply with a variety of regulations as discussed in Box 8-3. Disposing of waste in illegal dumping sites is not considered to have occurred in years later than 1980 and these sites are not considered to contribute to net emissions in this section for the inventory time frame of 1990 to 2012. MSW landfills, or sanitary landfills, are sites where MSW is managed to prevent or minimize health, safety, and environmental impacts. Waste is deposited in different cells and covered daily with soil; many have environmental monitoring systems to track performance, collect leachate, and collect landfill gas. Industrial waste landfills are constructed in a similar way as MSW landfills, but accept waste produced by industrial activity, such as factories, mills, and mines.

After being placed in a landfill, organic waste (such as paper, food scraps, and yard trimmings) is initially decomposed by aerobic bacteria. After the oxygen has been depleted, the remaining waste is available for consumption by anaerobic bacteria, which break down organic matter into substances such as cellulose, amino acids, and sugars. These substances are further broken down through fermentation into gases and short-chain organic compounds that form the substrates for the growth of methanogenic bacteria. These methane (CH₄) producing anaerobic bacteria convert the fermentation products into stabilized organic materials and biogas consisting of approximately 50 percent biogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) and 50 percent CH₄, by volume. Landfill biogas also contains trace amounts of non-methane organic compounds (NMOC) and volatile organic compounds (VOC) that either result from decomposition by-products or volatilization of biodegradable wastes (EPA 2008).

Methane and CO₂ are the primary constituents of landfill gas generation and emissions. However, the 2006 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Guidelines set an international convention to not report biogenic CO₂ released due to landfill decomposition in the Waste sector (IPCC 2006). Carbon dioxide emissions from landfills are estimated and reported for under the Land Use/Land Use Change and Forestry (LULUCF) sector (see Box 8-4). Additionally, emissions of NMOC and VOC are not estimated because they are considered to be emitted in trace amounts. Nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions from the disposal and application of sewage sludge on landfills are also not explicitly modeled as part of greenhouse gas emissions from landfills. N₂O emissions from sewage sludge applied to landfills as a daily cover or for disposal are expected to be relatively small because the microbial environment in an anaerobic landfill is not very conducive to the nitrification and denitrification processes that result in N₂O emissions. Furthermore, the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006) did not include a methodology for estimating N₂O emissions from solid waste disposal sites “because they are not significant.” Therefore, only CH₄ generation and emissions are estimated for landfills under the Waste sector.

Methane generation and emissions from landfills are a function of several factors, including: (1) the total amount of waste-in-place, which is the total waste landfilled annually over the operational lifetime of a landfill; (2) the characteristics of the landfill receiving waste (e.g., composition of waste-in-place, size, climate, cover material); (3) the amount of CH₄ that is recovered and either flared or used for energy purposes; and (4) the amount of CH₄ oxidized as the landfill gas passes through the cover material into the atmosphere. Each landfill has unique characteristics, but all managed landfills practice similar operating practices, including the application of a daily and intermediate cover material over the waste being disposed of in the landfill to prevent odor and reduce risks to public health. Based on recent literature, the specific type of cover material used can affect the rate of oxidation of landfill gas (RTI 2011). The most commonly used cover materials are soil, clay, and sand. Some states also permit the use of green waste, tarps, waste derived materials, sewage sludge or biosolids, and contaminated soil as a daily cover. Methane production typically begins one or two years after waste is disposed of in a landfill and will continue for 10 to 60 years or longer as the degradable waste decomposes over time.

In 2012, landfill CH₄ emissions were approximately 102.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (4,897 Gg), representing the third largest source of CH₄ emissions in the United States, behind natural gas systems and enteric fermentation. Emissions from MSW landfills, which received about 69 percent of the total solid waste generated in the United States, accounted for about 95 percent of total landfill emissions, while industrial landfills accounted for the remainder. Approximately 1,900 to 2,000 operational MSW landfills exist in the United States, with the largest landfills

receiving most of the waste and generating the majority of the CH₄ emitted (EPA 2010; *BioCycle* 2010; WBJ 2010). Conversely, there are approximately 3,200 MSW landfills in the United States that have been closed since 1980 (for which a closure data is known, WBJ 2010). While the number of active MSW landfills has decreased significantly over the past 20 years, from approximately 6,326 in 1990 to approximately 2,000 in 2010, the average landfill size has increased (EPA 2010; *BioCycle* 2010; WBJ 2010). The exact number of active and closed dedicated industrial waste landfills is not known at this time, but the Waste Business Journal total for landfills accepting industrial and construction and demolition debris for 2010 is 1,305 (WBJ 2010). Conversely, only 176 facilities with industrial waste landfills reported under subpart TT (Industrial Waste Landfills) of EPA's GHGRP in 2011 and 2012, indicating that there may be several hundreds of industrial waste landfills that are not required to report under EPA's GHGRP, or that the actual number of industrial waste landfills in the United States is relatively low compared to MSW landfills.

The estimated annual quantity of waste placed in MSW landfills increased 26 percent from approximately 205 Tg in 1990 to 284 Tg in 2012 (see Annex 3.14). The annual amount of waste generated and subsequently disposed in MSW landfills varies annually and depends on several factors (e.g., the economy, consumer patterns, recycling and composting programs, inclusion in a garbage collection service). The total amount of MSW generated is expected to increase as the U.S. population continues to grow. The percentage of waste landfilled, however, may decline due to increased recycling and composting practices.

Net CH₄ emissions have fluctuated from year to year, but a slowly decreasing trend has been observed over the past decade despite increased waste disposal amounts. For example, from 1990 to 2012, net CH₄ emissions from landfills decreased by approximately 30 percent (see Table 8-3 and Table 8-4). This decreasing trend can be attributed to a 21 percent reduction in the amount of decomposable materials (i.e., paper and paperboard, food scraps, and yard trimmings) discarded in MSW landfills over the time series (EPA 2010) and an increase in the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted (i.e., used for energy or flared) at MSW landfills, resulting in lower net CH₄ emissions from MSW landfills.²⁴⁹ For instance, in 1990, approximately 954 Gg of CH₄ were recovered and combusted from landfills, while in 2012, approximately 8,648 Gg of CH₄ were combusted, representing an average annual increase in the quantity of CH₄ recovered and combusted at MSW landfills from 1990 to 2012 of 11 percent (see Annex 3.14). Landfill gas collection and control is not accounted for at industrial waste landfills in the solid waste emissions inventory (see the Methodology discussion for more information).

The quantity of recovered CH₄ that is either flared or used for energy purposes at MSW landfills has continually increased as a result of 1996 federal regulations that require large MSW landfills to collect and combust landfill gas (see 40 CFR Part 60, Subpart Cc 2005 and 40 CFR Part 60, Subpart WWW 2005). Voluntary programs that encourage CH₄ recovery and beneficial reuse, such as EPA's Landfill Methane Outreach Program (LMOP) and federal and state incentives that promote renewable energy (e.g., tax credits, low interest loans, and Renewable Portfolio Standards), have also contributed to increased interest in landfill gas collection and control. In 2012, an estimated 67 new landfill gas-to-energy (LFGTE) projects and 3 new flares began operation (EPA 2012). While the amount of landfill gas collected and combusted continues to increase every year, the rate of increase in collection and combustion no longer exceeds the rate of additional CH₄ generation from the amount of organic MSW landfilled as the U.S. population grows.

²⁴⁹ Due to a lack of data specific to industrial waste landfills, landfill gas recovery is only estimated for MSW landfills.

Table 8-3: CH₄ Emissions from Landfills (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
MSW Landfills	172.6	240.8	260.0	265.1	270.1	275.1	280.0
Industrial Landfills	11.6	15.4	15.7	15.8	15.9	15.9	15.9
Recovered							
Gas-to-Energy	(13.3)	(55.9)	(67.2)	(74.2)	(82.5)	(88.0)	(96.8)
Flared	(6.7)	(75.7)	(81.5)	(78.6)	(81.4)	(83.7)	(84.8)
Oxidized	(16.4)	(12.5)	(12.7)	(12.8)	(12.2)	(11.9)	(11.4)
Total	147.8	112.1	114.3	115.3	109.9	107.4	102.8

Table 8-4: CH₄ Emissions from Landfills (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
MSW Landfills	8,219	11,466	12,380	12,623	12,863	13,099	13,331
Industrial Landfills	553	732	748	753	756	758	758
Recovered							
Gas-to-Energy	(634)	(2,660)	(3,198)	(3,532)	(3,927)	(4,190)	(4,608)
Flared	(321)	(3,606)	(3,880)	(3,743)	(3,876)	(3,986)	(4,040)
Oxidized	(782)	(593)	(605)	(610)	(582)	(568)	(544)
Total	7,036	5,339	5,444	5,492	5,234	5,112	4,897

Methodology

CH₄ emissions from landfills were estimated as the CH₄ produced from MSW landfills, plus the CH₄ produced by industrial waste landfills, minus the CH₄ recovered and combusted from MSW landfills, minus the CH₄ oxidized before being released into the atmosphere:

$$\text{CH}_{4,\text{Solid Waste}} = [\text{CH}_{4,\text{MSW}} + \text{CH}_{4,\text{Ind}} - \text{R}] - \text{Ox}$$

where,

- CH_{4,Solid Waste} = CH₄ emissions from solid waste
- CH_{4,MSW} = CH₄ generation from MSW landfills,
- CH_{4,Ind} = CH₄ generation from industrial landfills,
- R = CH₄ recovered and combusted (only for MSW landfills), and
- Ox = CH₄ oxidized from MSW and industrial waste landfills before release to the atmosphere.

The methodology for estimating CH₄ emissions from landfills is based on the first order decay model described by the IPCC (IPCC 2006). Methane generation is based on nationwide waste disposal data; it is not landfill-specific. The amount of CH₄ recovered, however, is landfill-specific, but only for MSW landfills due to a lack of data specific to industrial waste landfills. Values for the CH₄ generation potential (L₀) and decay rate constant (k) used in the first order decay model were obtained from an analysis of CH₄ recovery rates for a database of 52 landfills and from published studies of other landfills (RTI 2004; EPA 1998; SWANA 1998; Peer, Thorneloe, and Epperson 1993). The decay rate constant was found to increase with average annual rainfall; consequently, values of k were developed for 3 ranges of rainfall, or climate types (wet, arid, and temperate). The annual quantity of waste placed in landfills was apportioned to the 3 ranges of rainfall based on the percent of the U.S. population in each of the 3 ranges. Historical census data were used to account for the shift in population to more arid areas over time. An overview of the data sources and methodology used to calculate CH₄ generation and recovery is provided below, while a more detailed description of the methodology used to estimate CH₄ emissions from landfills can be found in Annex 3.14.

States and local municipalities across the United States do not consistently track and report quantities of collected waste or their end-of-life disposal methods to a centralized system. Therefore, national MSW landfill waste generation and disposal data are obtained from the *BioCycle* State of Garbage surveys, published approximately every two years, with the most recent publication date of 2010. The State of Garbage (SOG) survey is the only continually updated nationwide survey of waste disposed in landfills in the United States and is the primary data source with which to estimate CH₄ emissions from MSW landfills. The SOG surveys use the principles of mass balance where all MSW generated is equal to the amount of MSW landfilled, combusted in waste-to-energy plants, composted, and/or recycled (*BioCycle* 2010). This approach assumes that all waste management methods are tracked and reported to state agencies. Survey respondents are asked to provide a breakdown of MSW generated and managed by landfilling, recycling, composting, and combustion (in waste-to-energy facilities) in actual tonnages as opposed to reporting a percent generated under each waste disposal option. The data reported through the survey are adjusted to exclude non-MSW materials (e.g., industrial and agricultural wastes, construction and demolition debris, automobile scrap, and sludge from wastewater treatment plants) that may be included in survey responses. All state disposal data are adjusted for imports and exports where imported waste is included in a particular state's total while exported waste is not. Methodological changes have occurred over the time that the SOG survey has been published, and this has affected the fluctuating trends observed in the data (RTI 2013).

The SOG survey is voluntary and not all states provide data for each survey year. Where no waste generation data are provided by a state in the SOG survey, the amount generated is estimated using one of the following methods: the waste per capita from a previous SOG survey is multiplied by that particular state's population, or the average nationwide waste per capita rate is multiplied by that particular state's population. The quantities of waste generated across all states are summed and that value is then used as the nationwide quantity of waste generated in a given reporting year.

State-specific landfill waste generation data and a national average disposal factor for 1989 through 2008 were obtained from the SOG survey for every two years (i.e., 2002, 2004, 2006, and 2008 as published in *BioCycle* 2006, 2008, and 2010). State-specific landfill waste generation data for the years in-between the SOG surveys (e.g., 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012) were extrapolated based on the SOG data and the U.S. Census population data. The most recent SOG survey was published in 2010 for the 2008 year; therefore, the annual quantities of waste generated for the years through 2012 were determined based on the 2010 data and population growth. Waste generation data will be updated as new reports are published. Because the SOG survey does not account for waste generated in U.S. territories, waste generation for the territories was estimated using population data obtained from the U.S. Census Bureau (2009, 2013) and national per capita solid waste generation from the SOG survey (2010).

Estimates of the quantity of waste landfilled from 1989 to the current inventory year are determined by applying a waste disposal factor to the total amount of waste generated (i.e., the SOG data). A waste disposal factor is determined for each year an SOG survey is published and equals the ratio of the total amount of waste landfilled to the total amount of waste generated. The waste disposal factor is interpolated for the years in-between the SOG surveys, as is done for the amount of waste generated for a given survey year.

Estimates of the annual quantity of waste landfilled for 1960 through 1988 were obtained from EPA's *Anthropogenic Methane Emissions in the United States, Estimates for 1990: Report to Congress* (EPA 1993) and an extensive landfill survey by the EPA's Office of Solid Waste in 1986 (EPA 1988). Although waste placed in landfills in the 1940s and 1950s contributes very little to current CH₄ generation, estimates for those years were included in the first order decay model for completeness in accounting for CH₄ generation rates and are based on the population in those years and the per capita rate for land disposal for the 1960s. For calculations in this inventory, wastes landfilled prior to 1980 were broken into two groups: wastes disposed in landfills (Methane Conversion Factor, MCF, of 1) and those disposed in dumps (MCF of 0.6). All calculations after 1980 assume waste is disposed in managed, modern landfills. Please see Annex 3.14 for more details.

Methane recovery is currently only accounted for at MSW landfills. Data collected through EPA's GHGRP for industrial waste landfills (subpart TT) show that only 2 of the 176 facilities, or 1 percent of facilities, reporting in the 2012 reporting year have active gas collection systems. EPA's GHGRP is not a national database and no comprehensive data regarding gas collection systems have been published for industrial waste landfills. Assumptions regarding a percentage of landfill gas collection systems, or a total annual amount of landfill gas collected for the non-reporting industrial waste landfills, have not been made for the inventory methodology.

The estimated landfill gas recovered per year at MSW landfills was based on a combination of three databases: the flare vendor database (contains updated sales data collected from vendors of flaring equipment), a database of landfill gas-to-energy (LFGTE) projects compiled by LMOP (EPA 2012), and a database developed by the Energy Information Administration (EIA) for the voluntary reporting of greenhouse gases (EIA 2007). Based on the information provided by the EIA and flare vendor databases, the CH₄ combusted by flares in operation from 1990 to the current inventory year was estimated. Information provided by the EIA and LMOP databases were used to estimate methane combusted in LFGTE projects over the time series. The three databases were carefully compared to identify landfills that were in two or all three of the databases to avoid double or triple counting CH₄ reductions.

The flare vendor database estimates CH₄ combusted by flares using the midpoint of a flare's reported capacity while the EIA database uses landfill-specific measured gas flow. As the EIA database only includes data through 2006, the amount of CH₄ recovered from 2007 to the current inventory year for projects included in the EIA database were assumed to be the same as in 2006. This quantity likely underestimates flaring because these databases do not have information on all flares in operation. The EIA database is no longer being updated and it is expected that data obtained from the EPA's GHGRP will serve as a supplemental data source for facility-reported recovery data in future inventories. Additionally, the EIA and LMOP databases provided data on landfill gas flow and energy generation for landfills with LFGTE projects. If a landfill in the EIA database was also in the LMOP and/or the flare vendor database, the emissions avoided were based on the EIA data because landfill owners or operators reported the amount recovered based on measurements of gas flow and concentration, and the reporting accounted for changes over time. If both flare data and LMOP recovery data were available for any of the remaining landfills (i.e., not in the EIA database), then the emissions recovery was based on the LMOP data, which provides reported landfill-specific data on gas flow for direct use projects and project capacity (i.e., megawatts) for electricity projects. The flare data, on the other hand, only provide a range of landfill gas flow for a given flare size. Given that each LFGTE project is likely to also have a flare, double counting reductions from flares and LFGTE projects in the LMOP database was avoided by subtracting emission reductions associated with LFGTE projects for which a flare had not been identified from the emission reductions associated with flares (referred to as the flare correction factor). A further explanation of the methodology used to estimate the landfill gas recovered can be found in Annex 3.14.

A destruction efficiency of 99 percent was applied to CH₄ recovered to estimate CH₄ emissions avoided due to the combusting of CH₄ in destruction devices, i.e., flares. The destruction efficiency value was selected based on the range of efficiencies (86 to 99+ percent) recommended for flares in EPA's AP-42 Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, Draft Chapter 2.4, Table 2.4-3 (EPA 2008). A typical value of 97.7 percent was presented for the non-methane components (i.e., volatile organic compounds and non-methane organic compounds) in test results (EPA 2008). An arithmetic average of 98.3 percent and a median value of 99 percent are derived from the test results presented in EPA (2008). Thus, a value of 99 percent for the destruction efficiency of flares has been used in Inventory methodology. Other data sources supporting a 99 percent destruction efficiency include those used to establish new source performance standards (NSPS) for landfills and in recommendations for shutdown flares used in the LMOP.

Emissions from industrial waste landfills were estimated from industrial production data (ERG 2013), waste disposal factors, and the first order decay model. As over 99 percent of the organic waste placed in industrial waste landfills originated from the food processing (meat, vegetables, fruits) and pulp and paper industries, estimates of industrial landfill emissions focused on these two sectors (EPA 1993). There are currently no data sources that track and report the amount and type of waste disposed of in industrial waste landfills in the United States. Therefore, the amount of waste landfilled is assumed to be a fraction of production that is held constant over the time series as explained in Annex 3.14. The composition of waste disposed of in industrial waste landfills is expected to be more consistent in terms of composition and quantity than that disposed of in MSW landfills.

The amount of CH₄ oxidized by the landfill cover at both municipal and industrial waste landfills was assumed to be 10 percent of the CH₄ generated that is not recovered (IPCC 2006, Mancinelli and McKay 1985, Czepiel et al. 1996). To calculate net CH₄ emissions, both CH₄ recovered and CH₄ oxidized were subtracted from CH₄ generated at municipal and industrial waste landfills.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

Several types of uncertainty are associated with the estimates of CH₄ emissions from MSW and industrial waste landfills. The primary uncertainty concerns the characterization of landfills. Information is not available on two fundamental factors affecting CH₄ production: the amount and composition of waste placed in every MSW and industrial waste landfill for each year of its operation. The SOG survey is the only nationwide data source that compiles the amount of MSW disposed at the state-level. The surveys do not include information on waste composition and there are no comprehensive data sets that compile quantities of waste disposed or waste composition by landfill. Some MSW landfills have conducted detailed waste composition studies, but landfills in the United States are not required to perform these types of studies. The approach used here assumes that the CH₄ generation potential and the rate of decay that produces CH₄, as determined from several studies of CH₄ recovery at MSW landfills, are representative of conditions at U.S. landfills. When this top-down approach is applied at the nationwide level, the uncertainties are assumed to be less than when applying this approach to individual landfills and then aggregating the results to the national level. In other words, this approach may over- and under-estimate CH₄ generation at some landfills if used at the facility-level, but the end result is expected to balance out because it is being applied nationwide. There is also a high degree of uncertainty and variability associated with the first order decay model, particularly when a homogeneous waste composition and hypothetical decomposition rates are applied to heterogeneous landfills (IPCC 2006).

Additionally, there is a lack of landfill-specific information regarding the number and type of industrial waste landfills in the United States. The approach used here assumes that the majority (99 percent) of industrial waste disposed of in industrial waste landfills consists of waste from the pulp and paper and food and beverage industries. However, because waste generation and disposal data are not available in an existing data source for all U.S. industrial waste landfills, we apply a straight disposal factor over the entire time series to the amount of waste generated to determine the amounts disposed.

Aside from the uncertainty in estimating CH₄ generation potential, uncertainty exists in the estimates of the landfill gas oxidized. A constant oxidation factor of 10 percent as recommended by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) for managed landfills is used for both MSW and industrial waste landfills regardless of climate, the type of cover material, and/or presence of a gas collection system. The number of field studies measuring the rate of oxidation has increased substantially since the IPCC 2006 Guidelines were published and, as discussed in the Potential Improvements section, efforts are being made to review the literature and revise this value based on recent, peer-reviewed studies.

Another significant source of uncertainty lies with the estimates of CH₄ that are recovered by flaring and gas-to-energy projects at MSW landfills. Three separate databases containing recovery information are used to determine the total amount of CH₄ recovered and there are uncertainties associated with each. The LMOP database and the flare vendor databases are updated annually, while the EIA database has not been updated since 2005 and will essentially be replaced by GHGRP data for a portion of landfills (i.e., those meeting the GHGRP thresholds). To avoid double counting and to use the most relevant estimate of CH₄ recovery for a given landfill, a hierarchical approach is used among the three databases. The EIA data are given precedence because CH₄ recovery was directly reported by landfills, the LMOP data are given second priority because CH₄ recovery is estimated from facility-reported LFGTE system characteristics, and the flare data are given third priority because this database contains minimal information about the flare and no site-specific operating characteristics (Bronstein et al., 2012). The IPCC default value of 10 percent for uncertainty in recovery estimates was used in the uncertainty analysis when metering of landfill gas was in place (for about 64 percent of the CH₄ estimated to be recovered). This 10 percent uncertainty factor applies to 2 of the 3 databases (EIA and LMOP). For flaring without metered recovery data (approximately 34 percent of the CH₄ estimated to be recovered), a much higher uncertainty of approximately 50 percent was used (e.g., when recovery was estimated as 50 percent of the flare's design capacity). The compounding uncertainties associated with the 3 databases leads to the large upper and lower bounds for MSW landfills presented in Table 8-5.

The results of the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance Tier 2* quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 8-5. In 2012, landfill CH₄ emissions were estimated to be between 45.0 and 151.3 Tg CO₂ Eq., which indicates a range of 47 percent below to 56 percent above the 2012 emission estimate of 102.9 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 8-5: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Landfills (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			(Tg CO ₂ Eq.)		(%)	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Landfills	CH ₄	102.9	45.0	151.3	-56%	+47%
MSW	CH ₄	88.5	30.9	137.5	-65%	+55%
Industrial	CH ₄	14.4	10.5	17.4	-27%	+21%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above. Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation. QA/QC checks are not performed on the published data used to populate the Inventory data set, including the SOG survey data and the published LMOP database. A primary focus of the QA/QC checks was to ensure that CH₄ recovery estimates were not double-counted and that all LFGTE projects and flares were included in the respective project databases. Both manual and electronic checks were made to ensure that emission avoidance from each landfill was calculated in only one of the three databases. The primary calculation spreadsheet is tailored from the IPCC waste model and has been verified previously using the original, peer-reviewed IPCC waste model. All model input values were verified by secondary QA/QC review. A data linking error was identified during the QA/QC review of the summary data spreadsheet. The industrial waste generation data for 2012 was found to be linking to the 2011 industrial waste generation data. This error results in an increase in net methane emissions of 2.2 Gg (0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq.) for 2012. This will be corrected in the 1990-2013 Inventory report, and improved initial QA/QC procedures will be implemented to avoid any similar errors.

Recalculations Discussion

When conducted, methodological recalculations are applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through the current inventory year. Methodological changes were made to the amount of MSW landfill waste generation data for states that did not report an annual amount of waste generated in the SOG surveys for the 2004, 2006, and 2008 data. This change impacted the data for 2003 through 2012. This recalculation was warranted after reviewing the waste generation and disposal trends over the time series, particularly for years after 2004 where a noticeable decrease in the amount of waste generated was calculated. The methodology used by the SOG survey changed (BioCycle 2006) to include only MSW in the values reported in the survey (i.e., other wastes that may be disposed of in an MSW landfill were excluded). This change resulted in the decrease in total waste generation between years before and after 2006. As states got more accustomed to the revised survey questions, they were presumed to be better able to report the MSW portions. Further investigation is warranted for the years after 2006 to better account for the non-MSW portion of waste that is disposed of in MSW landfills.

For states that did not report an amount of waste generated in the surveys, the recalculations made to the 1990 through 2012 inventory used the most recent SOG state-specific waste per capita data from one of the previous SOG surveys. These recalculations resulted in a 3.0 million metric ton decrease in the estimate amount of MSW generated in 2003 and an 8.0 million metric ton decrease in the estimated amount of MSW generated in 2004, reducing landfill methane emissions by 0.05 to 0.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. from 2004 through 2007. An 8.4 million metric ton increase in the MSW generation estimate for 2006 and a 39.2 million metric ton increase in the MSW generation estimate for 2008 increased emissions by under 0.7 to 4.3 Tg CO₂e from 2008 through 2011. The large change in the 2008 data results from the fact that 13 states did not report 2008 data for the 2010 SOG survey. One of these states is California.

Previously, the 2008 nationwide waste per capita rate (1.33 tons per year) was used to estimate the amount of waste generated in California for 2008. This change resulted in using the California-specific waste generation rate from a previous survey (for the year 2004) of 2.17 tons per year, which was more reflective of waste generation in that state than the nationwide waste generation rate.

Planned Improvements

Improvements being examined include incorporating data from the EPA's GHGRP and recent peer-reviewed literature, modifying the default oxidation factor applied to MSW and industrial waste landfills, and either modifying the bulk waste degradable organic carbon (DOC) value or estimating emissions using a waste-specific approach in the first order decay model.

Beginning in 2011, all MSW landfills that accepted waste on or after January 1, 1980 and generate CH₄ in amounts equivalent to 25,000 metric tons or more of carbon dioxide equivalent (CO₂ Eq.) were required to calculate and report their greenhouse gas emissions to EPA through its GHGRP. The MSW landfill source category of EPA's GHGRP consists of the landfill, landfill gas collection systems, and landfill gas destruction devices, including flares. Potential improvements to the inventory methodology may be made using the GHGRP data, specifically for inputs to the first order decay equation. The approach used in the inventory to estimate CH₄ generation assumes a bulk waste-specific DOC value that may not accurately capture the changing waste composition over the time series (e.g., the reduction of organics entering the landfill environment due to increased composting, see Box 8-4). Using data obtained from EPA's GHGRP and any publicly available landfill-specific waste characterization studies in the United States, the methodology may be modified to incorporate a waste composition approach, or revisions may be made to the bulk waste DOC value currently used. Additionally, GHGRP data could be analyzed and a weighted average for the CH₄ correction factor (MCF), fraction of CH₄ (F) in the landfill gas, the destruction efficiency of flares, and the decay rate constant (k) could replace the values currently used in the inventory.

The most significant contribution of GHGRP data to the emission estimates is expected to be the amount of recovered landfill gas and other information related to the gas collection system (Bronstein et al. 2012). Information for landfills with gas collection systems reporting under EPA's GHGRP will be incorporated into the inventory data set and the measured CH₄ recovery data will be used for the reporting landfills in lieu of the EIA, LMOP, and flare vendor data. GHGRP data undergo an extensive series of verification steps, are more reliable and accurate than the data currently used, and will reduce uncertainties surrounding CH₄ recovery when applied to the landfills in the inventory data set (Bronstein et al. 2012).

In addition to MSW landfills, industrial waste landfills at facilities emitting CH₄ in amounts equivalent to 25,000 metric tons or more of CO₂ Eq. were required to report their GHG emissions beginning in September 2012 through EPA's GHGRP. Similar data for industrial waste landfills as is required for the MSW landfills will be reported. Any additions or improvements to the inventory using reported GHGRP data will be made for the industrial waste landfill portion of the inventory. One possible improvement is the addition of industrial sectors other than pulp and paper, and food and beverage (e.g., metal foundries, petroleum refineries, and chemical manufacturing facilities). Of particular interest in the GHGRP data set for industrial waste landfills will be the presence of gas collection systems since recovery is not currently associated with industrial waste landfills in the inventory methodology. It is unlikely that data reported through EPA's GHGRP for industrial waste landfills will yield improved estimates for k and L₀ for the industrial sectors. However, EPA is considering an update to the L₀ and k values for the pulp and paper sector and will work with stakeholders to gather data and other feedback on potential changes to these values.

The addition of this higher tier data will improve the emission calculations to provide a more accurate representation of greenhouse gas emissions from MSW and industrial waste landfills. It is expected that these potential improvements can occur as early as the 1990 to 2013 inventory year since EPA's GHGRP equation inputs for both MSW and industrial waste landfills will have been reported and verified by that time.²⁵⁰ Facility-level reporting data

²⁵⁰ Due to the large numbers of entities reporting under the GHGRP and the large number of data reporting elements, EPA concluded that case-by-case determinations would not result in a timely release of non-confidential data. EPA determined through a series of rulemaking actions which categories of data elements to protect as confidential business information (CBI). Any data submitted under the Reporting Program that is classified as CBI will be protected under the provisions of 40 CFR part

from EPA's GHGRP are not available for all inventory years as reported in this inventory; therefore, particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency while incorporating data from EPA's GHGRP that would be useful to improve the emissions estimates for MSW landfills. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.²⁵¹

As a first step toward revising the oxidation factor used in the inventory, a literature review was conducted in 2011 (RTI 2011). A standard CH₄ oxidation factor of 10 percent has been used for both industrial and MSW landfills since the inventory began and is currently recommended as the default for well-managed landfills in the latest IPCC guidelines (2006). Recent comments on the inventory methodology indicated that a default oxidation factor of 10 percent may be less than oxidation rates achieved at well-managed landfills with gas collection and control. The impact of different landfill cover types on the rate of oxidation warrants further investigation as well.

Currently, one oxidation factor (10 percent) is applied to the total amount of waste generated nationwide. Changing the oxidation factor and calculating the amount of CH₄ oxidized from landfills with gas collection and control requires the estimation of waste disposed in these types of landfills. The inventory methodology uses waste generation data from the SOG surveys, which report the total amount of waste generated and disposed nationwide by state. In 2010, the State of Garbage survey requested data on the presence of landfill gas collection systems for the first time. Twenty-eight states reported that 260 out of 1,414 (18 percent) operational landfills recovered landfill gas (*BioCycle* 2010). However, the survey did not include closed landfills with gas collection and control systems. In the future, the amount of states collecting and reporting this information is expected to increase. GHGRP data for MSW landfills could be used to fill in the gaps related to the amount of waste disposed in landfills with gas collection systems. Although EPA's GHGRP does not capture every landfill in the United States, larger landfills are expected to meet the reporting thresholds and will be reporting waste disposal information by year beginning in March 2013. After incorporating GHGRP data, it may be possible to calculate the amount of waste disposed of at landfills with and without gas collection systems in the United States, which will allow the inventory waste model to apply different oxidation factors depending on the presence of a gas collection system.

Box 8-3: Methodological Approach for Estimating and Reporting U.S. Emissions and Sinks

Municipal solid waste generated in the United States can be managed through landfilling, recycling, composting, and combustion with energy recovery. There are two main sources for nationwide solid waste management data in the United States,

- The *BioCycle* and Earth Engineering Center of Columbia University's State of Garbage (SOG) in America surveys and
- The EPA's Municipal Solid Waste in The United States: Facts and Figures reports.

The SOG surveys collect state-reported data on the amount of waste generated and the waste managed via different management options: landfilling, recycling, composting, and combustion. The survey asks for actual tonnages instead of percentages in each waste category (e.g., residential, commercial, industrial, construction and demolition, organics, tires) for each waste management option. If such a breakdown is not available, the survey asks for total tons landfilled. The data are adjusted for imports and exports so that the principles of mass balance are adhered to, whereby the amount of waste managed does not exceed the amount of waste generated. The SOG reports present survey data aggregated to the state level.

The EPA Facts and Figures reports use a materials flow methodology, which relies heavily on a mass balance approach. Data are gathered from industry associations, key businesses, similar industry sources, and government agencies (e.g., the Department of Commerce and the U.S. Census Bureau) and are used to estimate tons of materials and products generated, recycled, or discarded nationwide. The amount of MSW generated is estimated by adjusting

2, Subpart B. According to Clean Air Act section 114(c), "emission data" cannot be classified as CBI. EPA deferred the reporting requirements for inputs to emission equations until 2013 for some data and 2015 for others to allow EPA to fully evaluate issues regarding the release of these data. Reporting of all inputs for MSW landfills and the majority of inputs for industrial waste landfills were deferred from reporting until 2013.

²⁵¹ See: <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdffiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

the imports and exports of produced materials. MSW that is not recycled, composted, or combusted is assumed to be landfilled. The data presented in the report are nationwide totals.

The State of Garbage surveys are the preferred data source for estimating waste generation and disposal amounts in the inventory because they are considered a more objective, numbers-based analysis of solid waste management in the United States. However, the EPA Facts and Figures reports are useful when investigating waste management trends at the nationwide level and for typical waste composition data, which the State of Garbage surveys do not request.

In this Inventory, emissions from solid waste management are presented separately by waste management option, except for recycling of waste materials. Emissions from recycling are attributed to the stationary combustion of fossil fuels that may be used to power on-site recycling machinery, and are presented in the stationary combustion chapter in the Energy sector, although the emissions estimates are not called out separately. Emissions from solid waste disposal in landfills and the composting of solid waste materials are presented in the Landfills and Composting chapters in the Waste sector of this report. In the United States, almost all incineration of MSW occurs at waste-to-energy facilities or industrial facilities where useful energy is recovered, and thus emissions from waste incineration are accounted for in the Incineration chapter of the Energy sector of this report.

Box 8-4: Overview of the Waste Sector

As shown in Figure 8-2 and Figure 8-3, landfilling of MSW is currently and has been the most common waste management practice. A large portion of materials in the waste stream are recovered for recycling and composting, which is becoming an increasingly prevalent trend throughout the country. Materials that are composted would have normally been disposed of in a landfill.

Figure 8-2: Management of Municipal Solid Waste in the United States, 2010 (BioCycle 2010)

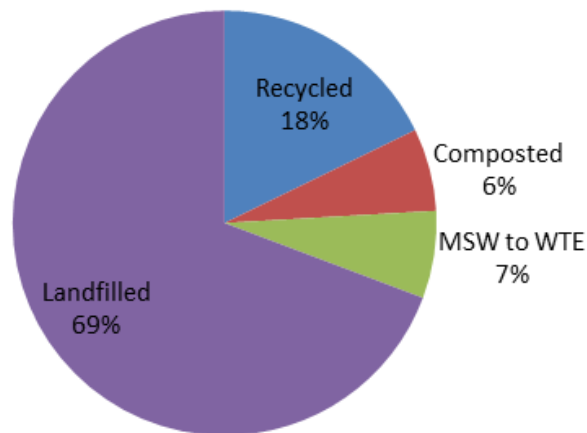


Figure 8-3: MSW Management Trends from 1990 to 2010 (EPA 2011)

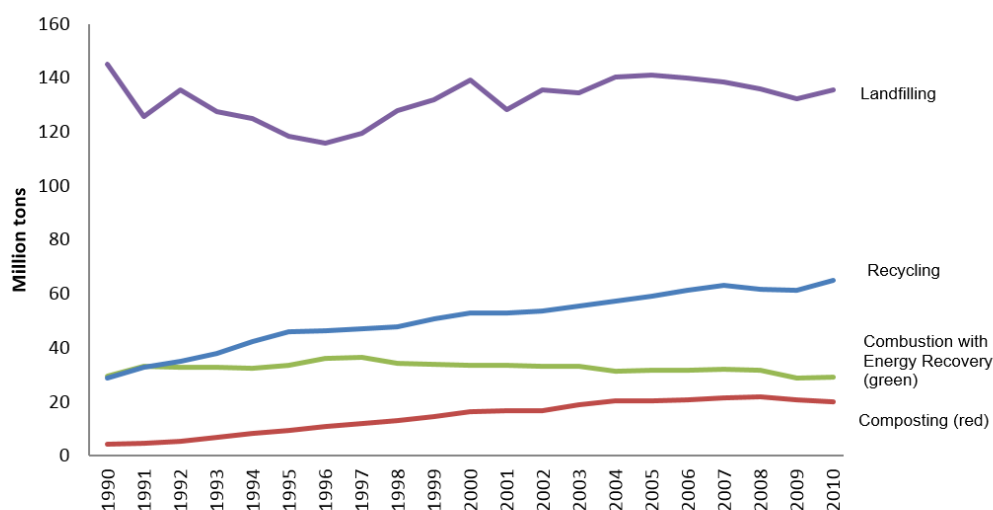


Table 8-6 presents a typical composition of waste disposed of at a typical MSW landfill in the United States over time. It is important to note that the actual composition of waste entering each landfill will vary from that presented in Table 8-6. Understanding how the waste composition changes over time, specifically for the degradable waste types, is important for estimating greenhouse gas emissions. For certain degradable waste types (i.e., paper and paperboard), the amounts discarded have decreased over time due to an increase in recovery (see Table 8-6 and Figure 8-4). Landfill ban legislation affecting yard trimmings resulted in an increase of composting from 1990 to 2008. Table 8-6 and Figure 8-4 do not reflect the impact of backyard composting on yard trimming generation and recovery estimates. The recovery of food trimmings has been consistently low. Increased recovery of degradable materials reduces the CH₄ generation potential and CH₄ emissions from landfills.

Table 8-6: Materials Discarded in the Municipal Waste Stream by Waste Type, Percent

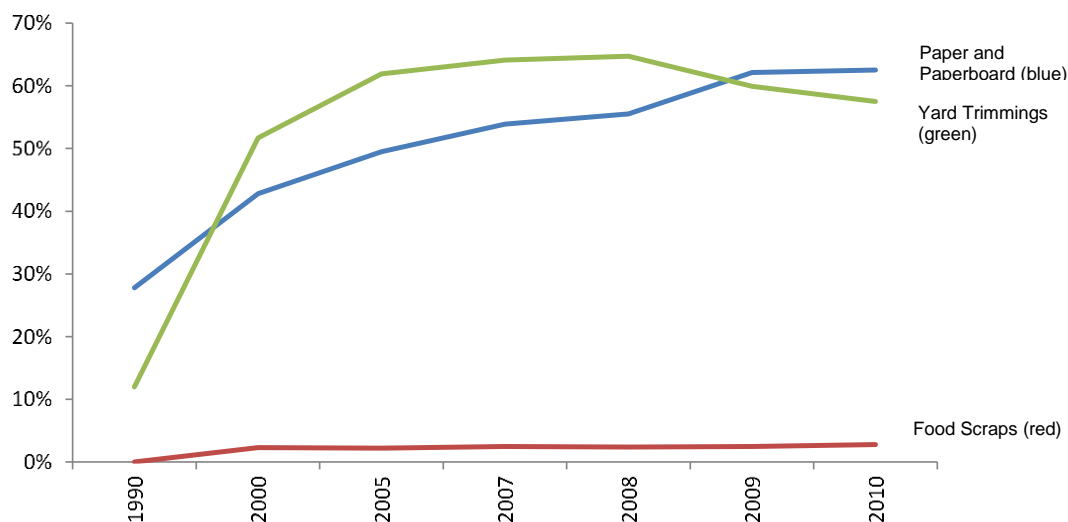
Waste Type	1990	2005	2007	2008	2009	2010
Paper and Paperboard	30.0%	24.5%	21.7%	19.7%	14.8%	15.3%
Glass	6.0%	5.7%	5.5%	5.3%	5.0%	4.8%
Metals	7.2%	7.7%	7.9%	8.0%	8.0%	8.3%
Plastics	9.6%	15.7%	16.4%	16.0%	15.8%	16.3%
Rubber and Leather	3.1%	3.5%	3.6%	3.7%	3.7%	3.8%
Textiles	2.9%	5.5%	5.9%	6.2%	6.3%	6.4%
Wood	6.9%	7.4%	7.5%	7.6%	7.7%	7.8%
Other ^a	1.4%	1.8%	1.9%	1.9%	1.9%	1.9%
Food Scraps ^b	13.6%	17.9%	18.2%	18.6%	19.1%	19.3%
Yard Trimmings ^c	17.6%	7.0%	6.7%	6.6%	7.6%	8.1%
Miscellaneous						
Inorganic Wastes	1.7%	2.1%	2.1%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%

^a Includes electrolytes in batteries and fluff pulp, feces, and urine in disposable diapers. Details may not add to totals due to rounding. Source: EPA 2011.

^b Data for food scraps were estimated using sampling studies in various parts of the country in combination with demographic data on population, grocery store sales, restaurant sales, number of employees, and number of prisoners, students, and patients in institutions. Source: EPA 2010.

^c Data for yard trimmings were estimated using sampling studies, population data, and published sources documenting legislation affecting yard trimmings disposal in landfills. Source: EPA 2010.

Figure 8-4: Percent of Recovered Degradable Materials from 1990 to 2010, percent (EPA 2011)



Box 8-5: Description of a Modern, Managed Landfill

Modern, managed landfills are well-engineered facilities that are located, designed, operated, and monitored to ensure compliance with federal, state, and tribal regulations. Municipal solid waste (MSW) landfills must be designed to protect the environment from contaminants which may be present in the solid waste stream.

Requirements for affected MSW landfills may include:

- Siting requirements to protect sensitive areas (e.g., airports, floodplains, wetlands, fault areas, seismic impact zones, and unstable areas)
- Design requirements for new landfills to ensure that Maximum Contaminant Levels (MCLs) will not be exceeded in the uppermost aquifer (e.g., composite liners and leachate collection systems)
- Leachate collection and removal systems
- Operating practices (e.g., daily and intermediate cover, receipt of regulated hazardous wastes, use of landfill cover material, access options to prevent illegal dumping, use of a collection system to prevent stormwater run-on/run-off, record-keeping)
- Air monitoring requirements (explosive gases)
- Groundwater monitoring requirements
- Closure and post-closure care requirements (e.g., final cover construction), and
- Corrective action provisions.

Specific federal regulations that affected MSW landfills must comply with include the 40 CFR Part 258 (Subtitle D of RCRA), or equivalent state regulations and the New Source Performance Standards (NSPS) 40 CFR Part 60 Subpart WWW. Additionally, state and tribal requirements may exist.²⁵²

²⁵² For more information regarding federal MSW landfill regulations, see http://www.epa.gov/osw/nonhaz/municipal/landfill/msw_regs.htm.

Box 8-6: Biogenic Wastes in Landfills

Regarding the depositing of wastes of biogenic origin in landfills (i.e., all degradable waste), empirical evidence shows that some of these wastes degrade very slowly in landfills, and the C they contain is effectively sequestered in landfills over a period of time (Barlaz 1998, 2006). Estimates of C removals from landfilling of forest products, yard trimmings, and food scraps are further described in the Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry chapter, based on methods presented in IPCC (2003) and IPCC (2006).

8.2 Wastewater Treatment (IPCC Source Category 6B)

Wastewater treatment processes can produce anthropogenic CH₄ and N₂O emissions. Wastewater from domestic²⁵³ and industrial sources is treated to remove soluble organic matter, suspended solids, pathogenic organisms, and chemical contaminants. Treatment may either occur on site, most commonly through septic systems or package plants, or off site at centralized treatment systems. Centralized wastewater treatment systems may include a variety of processes, ranging from lagooning to advanced tertiary treatment technology for removing nutrients. In the United States, approximately 20 percent of domestic wastewater is treated in septic systems or other on-site systems, while the rest is collected and treated centrally (U.S. Census Bureau 2011).

Soluble organic matter is generally removed using biological processes in which microorganisms consume the organic matter for maintenance and growth. The resulting biomass (sludge) is removed from the effluent prior to discharge to the receiving stream. Microorganisms can biodegrade soluble organic material in wastewater under aerobic or anaerobic conditions, where the latter condition produces CH₄. During collection and treatment, wastewater may be accidentally or deliberately managed under anaerobic conditions. In addition, the sludge may be further biodegraded under aerobic or anaerobic conditions. The generation of N₂O may also result from the treatment of domestic wastewater during both nitrification and denitrification of the N present, usually in the form of urea, ammonia, and proteins. These compounds are converted to nitrate (NO₃) through the aerobic process of nitrification. Denitrification occurs under anoxic conditions (without free oxygen), and involves the biological conversion of nitrate into dinitrogen gas (N₂). N₂O can be an intermediate product of both processes, but has typically been associated with denitrification. Recent research suggests that higher emissions of N₂O may in fact originate from nitrification (Ahn et al. 2010).

The principal factor in determining the CH₄ generation potential of wastewater is the amount of degradable organic material in the wastewater. Common parameters used to measure the organic component of the wastewater are the Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD) and Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD). Under the same conditions, wastewater with higher COD (or BOD) concentrations will generally yield more CH₄ than wastewater with lower COD (or BOD) concentrations. BOD represents the amount of oxygen that would be required to completely consume the organic matter contained in the wastewater through aerobic decomposition processes, while COD measures the total material available for chemical oxidation (both biodegradable and non-biodegradable). Because BOD is an aerobic parameter, it is preferable to use COD to estimate CH₄ production. The principal factor in determining the N₂O generation potential of wastewater is the amount of N in the wastewater. The variability of N in the influent to the treatment system, as well as the operating conditions of the treatment system itself, also impact the N₂O generation potential.

In 2012, CH₄ emissions from domestic wastewater treatment were 7.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (373 Gg CH₄). Emissions remained fairly steady from 1990 through 1997, but have decreased since that time due to decreasing percentages of wastewater being treated in anaerobic systems, including reduced use of on-site septic systems and central anaerobic

²⁵³ Throughout the inventory, emissions from domestic wastewater also include any commercial and industrial wastewater collected and co-treated with domestic wastewater.

treatment systems (EPA 1992, 1996, 2000, and 2004, U.S. Census 2011). In 2012, CH₄ emissions from industrial wastewater treatment were estimated to be 4.9 Tg CO₂ Eq. (234 Gg CH₄). Industrial emission sources have generally increased across the time series through 1999 and then fluctuated up and down with production changes associated with the treatment of wastewater from the pulp and paper manufacturing, meat and poultry processing, fruit and vegetable processing, starch-based ethanol production, and petroleum refining industries. Table 8-7 and Table 8-8 provide CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from domestic and industrial wastewater treatment.

With respect to N₂O, the United States identifies two distinct sources for N₂O emissions from domestic wastewater: emissions from centralized wastewater treatment processes, and emissions from effluent from centralized treatment systems that has been discharged into aquatic environments. The 2012 emissions of N₂O from centralized wastewater treatment processes and from effluent were estimated to be 0.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (1 Gg N₂O) and 4.7 Tg CO₂ Eq. (15.2 Gg N₂O), respectively. Total N₂O emissions from domestic wastewater were estimated to be 5.0 Tg CO₂ Eq. (16.2 Gg N₂O). N₂O emissions from wastewater treatment processes gradually increased across the time series as a result of increasing U.S. population and protein consumption.

Table 8-7: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Domestic and Industrial Wastewater Treatment (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	13.2	13.3	13.3	13.1	13.0	12.8	12.8
Domestic	8.8	8.4	8.2	8.2	8.1	7.9	7.8
Industrial ^a	4.3	4.9	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9
N₂O	3.5	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
Domestic	3.5	4.5	4.8	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.0
Total	16.7	17.8	18.1	17.9	17.9	17.8	17.8

^a Industrial activity includes the pulp and paper manufacturing, meat and poultry processing, fruit and vegetable processing, starch-based ethanol production, and petroleum refining industries.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 8-8: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Domestic and Industrial Wastewater Treatment (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH₄	626	635	635	623	619	611	608
Domestic	421	401	393	392	384	375	373
Industrial*	206	234	242	231	235	235	234
N₂O	11	14	15	16	16	16	16
Domestic	11	14	15	16	16	16	16

* Industrial activity includes the pulp and paper manufacturing, meat and poultry processing, fruit and vegetable processing, starch-based ethanol production, and petroleum refining industries.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Domestic Wastewater CH₄ Emission Estimates

Domestic wastewater CH₄ emissions originate from both septic systems and from centralized treatment systems, such as publicly owned treatment works (POTWs). Within these centralized systems, CH₄ emissions can arise from aerobic systems that are not well managed or that are designed to have periods of anaerobic activity (e.g., constructed wetlands), anaerobic systems (anaerobic lagoons and facultative lagoons), and from anaerobic digesters when the captured biogas is not completely combusted. CH₄ emissions from septic systems were estimated by multiplying the United States population by the percent of wastewater treated in septic systems (about 20 percent) and an emission factor (10.7 g CH₄/capita/day), and then converting the result to Gg/year. Methane emissions from POTWs were estimated by multiplying the total BOD₅ produced in the United States by the percent of wastewater treated centrally (about 80 percent), the relative percentage of wastewater treated by aerobic and anaerobic systems, the relative percentage of wastewater facilities with primary treatment, the percentage of BOD₅ treated after primary

treatment (67.5 percent), the maximum CH₄-producing capacity of domestic wastewater (0.6), and the relative MCFs for well-managed aerobic (zero), not well managed aerobic (0.3), and anaerobic (0.8) systems with all aerobic systems assumed to be well-managed. Methane emissions from anaerobic digesters were estimated by multiplying the amount of biogas generated by wastewater sludge treated in anaerobic digesters by the proportion of CH₄ in digester biogas (0.65), the density of CH₄ (662 g CH₄/m³ CH₄), and the destruction efficiency associated with burning the biogas in an energy/thermal device (0.99). The methodological equations are:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Emissions from Septic Systems} &= A \\ &= \text{US}_{\text{POP}} \times (\% \text{ onsite}) \times (\text{EF}_{\text{SEPTIC}}) \times 1/10^9 \times \text{Days} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Emissions from Centrally Treated Aerobic Systems} &= B \\ &= [(\% \text{ collected}) \times (\text{total BOD}_5 \text{ produced}) \times (\% \text{ aerobic}) \times (\% \text{ aerobic w/out primary}) + (\% \text{ collected}) \times (\text{total BOD}_5 \text{ produced}) \times (\% \text{ aerobic}) \times (\% \text{ aerobic w/primary}) \times (1-\% \text{ BOD removed in prim. treat.})] \times (\% \text{ operations not well managed}) \times (B_o) \times (\text{MCF-aerobic_not_well_man}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Emissions from Centrally Treated Anaerobic Systems} &= C \\ &= [(\% \text{ collected}) \times (\text{total BOD}_5 \text{ produced}) \times (\% \text{ anaerobic}) \times (\% \text{ anaerobic w/out primary}) + (\% \text{ collected}) \times (\text{total BOD}_5 \text{ produced}) \times (\% \text{ anaerobic}) \times (\% \text{ anaerobic w/primary}) \times (1-\% \text{ BOD removed in prim. treat.})] \times (B_o) \times (\text{MCF-anaerobic}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Emissions from Anaerobic Digesters} &= D \\ &= [(\text{POTW_flow_AD}) \times (\text{digester gas}) / (\text{per capita flow})] \times \text{conversion to m}^3 \times (\text{FRAC_CH}_4) \times (365.25) \times (\text{density of CH}_4) \times (1-\text{DE}) \times 1/10^9 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Total CH}_4 \text{ Emissions (Gg)} = A + B + C + D$$

where,

US _{POP}	= U.S. population
% onsite	= Flow to septic systems / total flow
% collected	= Flow to POTWs / total flow
% aerobic	= Flow to aerobic systems / total flow to POTWs
% anaerobic	= Flow to anaerobic systems / total flow to POTWs
% aerobic w/out primary	= Percent of aerobic systems that do not employ primary treatment
% aerobic w/primary	= Percent of aerobic systems that employ primary treatment
% BOD removed in prim. treat.	= 32.5%
% operations not well managed	= Percent of aerobic systems that are not well managed and in which some anaerobic degradation occurs
% anaerobic w/out primary	= Percent of anaerobic systems that do not employ primary treatment
% anaerobic w/primary	= Percent of anaerobic systems that employ primary treatment
EF _{SEPTIC}	= Methane emission factor (10.7 g CH ₄ /capita/day) – septic systems
Days	= days per year (365.25)
Total BOD ₅ produced	= kg BOD/capita/day × U.S. population × 365.25 days/yr
B _o	= Maximum CH ₄ -producing capacity for domestic wastewater (0.60 kg CH ₄ /kg BOD)
1/10 ⁶	= Conversion factor, kg to Gg
MCF-aerobic_not_well_man.	= CH ₄ correction factor for aerobic systems that are not well managed (0.3)
MCF-anaerobic	= CH ₄ correction factor for anaerobic systems (0.8)
DE	= CH ₄ destruction efficiency from flaring or burning in engine (0.99 for enclosed flares)
POTW_flow_AD	= Wastewater influent flow to POTWs that have anaerobic digesters (MGD)
digester gas	= Cubic feet of digester gas produced per person per day (1.0 ft ³ /person/day) (Metcalf and Eddy 2003)
per capita flow	= Wastewater flow to POTW per person per day (100 gal/person/day)
conversion to m ³	= Conversion factor, ft ³ to m ³ (0.0283)

FRAC_CH4 = Proportion CH₄ in biogas (0.65)
density of CH₄ = 662 (g CH₄/m³ CH₄)
1/10⁹ = Conversion factor, g to Gg

U.S. population data were taken from the U.S. Census Bureau International Database (U.S. Census 2013) and include the populations of the United States, American Samoa, Guam, Northern Mariana Islands, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. Table 8-9 presents U.S. population and total BOD₅ produced for 1990 through 2012, while Table 8-10 presents domestic wastewater CH₄ emissions for both septic and centralized systems in 2012. The proportions of domestic wastewater treated onsite versus at centralized treatment plants were based on data from the 1989, 1991, 1993, 1995, 1997, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011 American Housing Surveys conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau (U.S. Census 2011), with data for intervening years obtained by linear interpolation and data for 2012 forecasted using 1990-2011 data. The percent of wastewater flow to aerobic and anaerobic systems, the percent of aerobic and anaerobic systems that do and do not employ primary treatment, and the wastewater flow to POTWs that have anaerobic digesters were obtained from the 1992, 1996, 2000, and 2004 Clean Watershed Needs Survey (EPA 1992, 1996, 2000, and 2004). Data for intervening years were obtained by linear interpolation and the years 2004 through 2012 were forecasted from the rest of the time series. The BOD₅ production rate (0.09 kg/capita/day) and the percent BOD₅ removed by primary treatment for domestic wastewater were obtained from Metcalf and Eddy (2003). The CH₄ emission factor (0.6 kg CH₄/kg BOD₅) and the MCF used for centralized treatment systems were taken from IPCC (2006), while the CH₄ emission factor (10.7 g CH₄/capita/day) used for septic systems were taken from Leverenz et al. (2010). The CH₄ destruction efficiency for methane recovered from sludge digestion operations, 99 percent, was selected based on the range of efficiencies (98 to 100 percent) recommended for flares in AP-42 Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, Chapter 2.4 (EPA 1998), efficiencies used to establish new source performance standards (NSPS) for landfills, and in recommendations for closed flares used by the Landfill Methane Outreach Program (LMOP). The cubic feet of digester gas produced per person per day (1.0 ft³/person/day) and the proportion of CH₄ in biogas (0.65) come from Metcalf and Eddy (2003). The wastewater flow to a POTW (100 gal/person/day) was taken from the Great Lakes-Upper Mississippi River Board of State and Provincial Public Health and Environmental Managers, "Recommended Standards for Wastewater Facilities (Ten-State Standards)" (2004).

Table 8-9: U.S. Population (Millions) and Domestic Wastewater BOD₅ Produced (Gg)

Year	Population	BOD ₅
1990	253	8,333
2005	300	9,853
2008	308	10,132
2009	311	10,220
2010	313	10,303
2011	316	10,377
2012	318	10,450

Source: U.S. Census Bureau (2013);
Metcalf & Eddy 2003).

Table 8-10: Domestic Wastewater CH₄ Emissions from Septic and Centralized Systems (2012)

	CH ₄ emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	% of Domestic Wastewater CH ₄
Septic Systems	5.1	66.2%
Centralized Systems (including anaerobic sludge digestion)	2.8	33.8%
Total	7.8	100%

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Industrial Wastewater CH₄ Emission Estimates

Methane emission estimates from industrial wastewater were developed according to the methodology described in IPCC (2006). Industry categories that are likely to produce significant CH₄ emissions from wastewater treatment were identified and included in the inventory. The main criteria used to identify these industries are whether they generate high volumes of wastewater, whether there is a high organic wastewater load, and whether the wastewater is treated using methods that result in CH₄ emissions. The top five industries that meet these criteria are pulp and paper manufacturing; meat and poultry processing; vegetables, fruits, and juices processing; starch-based ethanol production; and petroleum refining. Wastewater treatment emissions for these sectors for 2012 are displayed in Table 8-11 below. Table 8-12 contains production data for these industries.

Table 8-11: Industrial Wastewater CH₄ Emissions by Sector (2012)

	CH ₄ emissions (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	% of Industrial Wastewater CH ₄
Meat & Poultry	3.7	74%
Pulp & Paper	0.9	19%
Fruit & Vegetables	0.1	2%
Petroleum Refineries	0.1	2%
Ethanol Refineries	0.1	2%
Total	4.9	100%

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 8-12: U.S. Pulp and Paper, Meat, Poultry, Vegetables, Fruits and Juices, Ethanol, and Petroleum Refining Production (Tg)

Year	Pulp and Paper ^a	Meat (Live Weight Killed)	Poultry (Live Weight Killed)	Vegetables, Fruits and Juices	Ethanol	Petroleum Refining
1990	128.9	27.3	14.6	38.7	2.5	702.4
2005	138.5	31.4	25.1	42.9	11.7	818.6
2008	133.1	34.4	26.6	45.1	27.8	836.8
2009	120.4	33.8	25.2	46.5	32.7	822.4
2010	128.6	33.7	25.9	43.2	39.7	848.6
2011	128.3	33.8	26.2	44.3	41.7	858.8
2012	132.3	33.8	26.1	44.8	39.7	852.8

^aPulp and paper production is the sum of woodpulp production plus paper and paperboard production.

Methane emissions from these categories were estimated by multiplying the annual product output by the average outflow, the organics loading (in COD) in the outflow, the maximum CH₄ producing potential of industrial wastewater (B₀), and the percentage of organic loading assumed to degrade anaerobically in a given treatment system (MCF). Ratios of BOD:COD in various industrial wastewaters were obtained from EPA (1997a) and used to estimate COD loadings. The B₀ value used for all industries is the IPCC default value of 0.25 kg CH₄/kg COD (IPCC 2006).

For each industry, the percent of plants in the industry that treat wastewater on site, the percent of plants that have a primary treatment step prior to biological treatment, and the percent of plants that treat wastewater anaerobically were defined. The percent of wastewater treated anaerobically onsite (TA) was estimated for both primary treatment (%TA_p) and secondary treatment (%TA_s). For plants that have primary treatment in place, an estimate of COD that is removed prior to wastewater treatment in the anaerobic treatment units was incorporated.

The methodological equations are:

$$\text{CH}_4 \text{ (industrial wastewater)} = [\text{P} \times \text{W} \times \text{COD} \times \% \text{TA}_p \times \text{B}_0 \times \text{MCF}] + [\text{P} \times \text{W} \times \text{COD} \times \% \text{TA}_s \times \text{B}_0 \times \text{MCF}]$$

$$\%TA_p = [\%Plants_o \times \%WW_{a,p} \times \%COD_p]$$

$$\%TA_s = [\%Plants_a \times \%WW_{a,s} \times \%COD_s] + [\%Plants_t \times \%WW_{a,t} \times \%COD_s]$$

where,

- CH₄ (industrial wastewater) = Total CH₄ emissions from industrial wastewater (kg/year)
- P = Industry output (metric tons/year)
- W = Wastewater generated (m³/metric ton of product)
- COD = Organics loading in wastewater (kg/m³)
- %TA_p = Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically on site in primary treatment
- %TA_s = Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically on site in secondary treatment
- %Plants_o = Percent of plants with onsite treatment
- %WW_{a,p} = Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in primary treatment
- %COD_p = Percent of COD entering primary treatment
- %Plants_a = Percent of plants with anaerobic secondary treatment
- %Plants_t = Percent of plants with other secondary treatment
- %WW_{a,s} = Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in anaerobic secondary treatment
- %WW_{a,t} = percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in other secondary treatment
- %COD_s = percent of COD entering secondary treatment
- B_o = Maximum CH₄ producing potential of industrial wastewater (default value of 0.25 kg CH₄/kg COD)
- MCF = CH₄ correction factor, indicating the extent to which the organic content (measured as COD) degrades anaerobically

Alternate methodological equations for calculating %TA were used for secondary treatment in the pulp and paper industry to account for aerobic systems with anaerobic portions. These equations are:

$$\%TA_a = [\%Plants_a * \%WW_{as} * \%COD_s] + [\%Plants_{at} * \%WW_{at} * \%COD_s]$$

$$\%TA_{at} = [\%Plants_{at} * \%WW_{as} * \%COD_s]$$

where,

- %TA_a = Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically on site in secondary treatment
- %TA_{at} = Percent of wastewater treated in aerobic systems with anaerobic portions on site in secondary treatment
- %Plants_a = Percent of plants with anaerobic secondary treatment
- %Plants_{at} = Percent of plants with partially anaerobic secondary treatment
- %WW_{a,s} = Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in anaerobic secondary treatment
- %WW_{a,t} = Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in other secondary treatment
- %COD_s = Percent of COD entering secondary treatment

As described below, the values presented in Table 8-13 were used in the emission calculations and are described in detail in Aguiar and Bartram (2008), Bicknell et al. (2013), and Aguiar et al. (2013).

Table 8-13: Variables Used to Calculate Percent Wastewater Treated Anaerobically by Industry (%)

Variable	Industry						
	Pulp and Paper	Meat Processing	Poultry Processing	Fruit/Vegetable Processing	Ethanol Production – Wet Mill	Ethanol Production – Dry Mill	Petroleum Refining
%TA _p	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
%TA _s	0	33	25	4.2	33.3	75	23.6
%TA _a	2.2	0	0	0	0	0	0
%TA _{a,t}	11.8	0	0	0	0	0	0
%Plants _o	0	100	100	11	100	100	100
%Plants _a	5	33	25	5.5	33.3	75	23.6
%Plants _{at}	28	0	0	0	0	0	0
%Plants _t	35	67	75	5.5	66.7	25	0

% WW _{a,p}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
% WW _{a,s}	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
% WW _{a,t}	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
% COD _p	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
% COD _s	42	100	100	77	100	100	100

Sources: Aguiar and Bartram (2008) Planned Revisions of the Industrial Wastewater Inventory Emission Estimates for the 1990-2007 Inventory. August 10, 2008; Bicknell et al. (2013) Revisions to Pulp and Paper Wastewater Inventory. October 2013; and Aguiar et al. (2013) Revisions to the Petroleum Wastewater Inventory. October 2013.

Pulp and Paper. Wastewater treatment for the pulp and paper industry typically includes neutralization, screening, sedimentation, and flotation/hydrocycloning to remove solids (World Bank 1999, Nemerow and Dasgupta 1991). Secondary treatment (storage, settling, and biological treatment) mainly consists of lagooning. In determining the percent that degrades anaerobically, both primary and secondary treatment were considered. In the United States, primary treatment is focused on solids removal, equalization, neutralization, and color reduction (EPA 1993). The vast majority of pulp and paper mills with on-site treatment systems use mechanical clarifiers to remove suspended solids from the wastewater. About 10 percent of pulp and paper mills with treatment systems use settling ponds for primary treatment and these are more likely to be located at mills that do not perform secondary treatment (EPA 1993). However, because the vast majority of primary treatment operations at U.S. pulp and paper mills use mechanical clarifiers, and less than 10 percent of pulp and paper wastewater is managed in primary settling ponds that are not expected to have anaerobic conditions, negligible emissions are assumed to occur during primary treatment.

Approximately 42 percent of the BOD passes on to secondary treatment, which consists of activated sludge, aerated stabilization basins, or non-aerated stabilization basins. Based on EPA's OAQPS Pulp and Paper Sector Survey, 5.3 percent of pulp and paper mills reported using anaerobic secondary treatment for wastewater and/or pulp condensates (Bicknell et al. 2011). Twenty-eight percent (28%) of mills also reported the use of quiescent settling ponds. Using engineering judgment, these systems were determined to be aerobic with possible anaerobic portions. For the truly anaerobic systems, an MCF of 0.8 is used, as these are typically deep stabilization basins. For the partially anaerobic systems, an MCF of 0.2 is used, which is the IPCC suggested MCF for shallow lagoons.

A time series of CH₄ emissions for 1990 through 2001 was developed based on production figures reported in the Lockwood-Post Directory (Lockwood-Post 2002). Data from the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO) database FAOSTAT were used for 2002 through 2012 (FAO 2013). The overall wastewater outflow varies based on a time series outlined in Bicknell et al. (2013) to reflect historical and current industry wastewater flow, and the average BOD concentrations in raw wastewater was estimated to be 0.4 gram BOD/liter (EPA 1997b, EPA 1993, World Bank 1999). The COD:BOD ratio used to convert the organic loading to COD for pulp and paper mills was 2 (EPA 1997a).

Meat and Poultry Processing. The meat and poultry processing industry makes extensive use of anaerobic lagoons in sequence with screening, fat traps, and dissolved air flotation when treating wastewater on site. About 33 percent of meat processing operations (EPA 2002) and 25 percent of poultry processing operations (U.S. Poultry 2006) perform on-site treatment in anaerobic lagoons. The IPCC default B₀ of 0.25 kg CH₄/kg COD and default MCF of 0.8 for anaerobic lagoons were used to estimate the CH₄ produced from these on-site treatment systems. Production data, in carcass weight and live weight killed for the meat and poultry industry, were obtained from the USDA Agricultural Statistics Database and the Agricultural Statistics Annual Reports (USDA 2013). Data collected by EPA's Office of Water provided estimates for wastewater flows into anaerobic lagoons: 5.3 and 12.5 m³/metric ton for meat and poultry production (live weight killed), respectively (EPA 2002). The loadings are 2.8 and 1.5 g BOD/liter for meat and poultry, respectively. The COD:BOD ratio used to convert the organic loading to COD for both meat and poultry facilities was 3 (EPA 1997a).

Vegetables, Fruits, and Juices Processing. Treatment of wastewater from fruits, vegetables, and juices processing includes screening, coagulation/settling, and biological treatment (lagooning). The flows are frequently seasonal, and robust treatment systems are preferred for on-site treatment. Effluent is suitable for discharge to the sewer. This industry is likely to use lagoons intended for aerobic operation, but the large seasonal loadings may develop limited anaerobic zones. In addition, some anaerobic lagoons may also be used (Nemerow and Dasgupta 1991). Consequently, 4.2 percent of these wastewater organics are assumed to degrade anaerobically. The IPCC default B₀ of 0.25 kg CH₄/kg COD and default MCF of 0.8 for anaerobic treatment were used to estimate the CH₄ produced from these on-site treatment systems. The USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (USDA 2013) provided

production data for potatoes, other vegetables, citrus fruit, non-citrus fruit, and grapes processed for wine. Outflow and BOD data, presented in Table 8-14, were obtained from EPA (1974) for potato, citrus fruit, and apple processing, and from EPA (1975) for all other sectors. The COD:BOD ratio used to convert the organic loading to COD for all fruit, vegetable, and juice facilities was 1.5 (EPA 1997a).

Table 8-14: Wastewater Flow (m³/ton) and BOD Production (g/L) for U.S. Vegetables, Fruits, and Juices Production

Commodity	Wastewater Outflow (m ³ /ton)	BOD (g/L)
Vegetables		
Potatoes	10.27	1.765
Other Vegetables	8.67	0.791
Fruit		
Apples	3.66	1.371
Citrus	10.11	0.317
Non-citrus	12.42	1.204
Grapes (for wine)	2.78	1.831

Ethanol Production. Ethanol, or ethyl alcohol, is produced primarily for use as a fuel component, but is also used in industrial applications and in the manufacture of beverage alcohol. Ethanol can be produced from the fermentation of sugar-based feedstocks (e.g., molasses and beets), starch- or grain-based feedstocks (e.g., corn, sorghum, and beverage waste), and cellulosic biomass feedstocks (e.g., agricultural wastes, wood, and bagasse). Ethanol can also be produced synthetically from ethylene or hydrogen and carbon monoxide. However, synthetic ethanol comprises only about 2 percent of ethanol production, and although the Department of Energy predicts cellulosic ethanol to greatly increase in the coming years, currently it is only in an experimental stage in the United States. Currently, ethanol is mostly made from sugar and starch crops, but with advances in technology, cellulosic biomass is increasingly used as ethanol feedstock (US DOE 2013).

Ethanol is produced from corn (or other starch-based feedstocks) primarily by two methods: wet milling and dry milling. Historically, the majority of ethanol was produced by the wet milling process, but now the majority is produced by the dry milling process. The wastewater generated at ethanol production facilities is handled in a variety of ways. Dry milling facilities often combine the resulting evaporator condensate with other process wastewaters, such as equipment wash water, scrubber water, and boiler blowdown and anaerobically treat this wastewater using various types of digesters. Wet milling facilities often treat their steepwater condensate in anaerobic systems followed by aerobic polishing systems. Wet milling facilities may treat the stillage (or processed stillage) from the ethanol fermentation/distillation process separately or together with steepwater and/or wash water. CH₄ generated in anaerobic digesters is commonly collected and either flared or used as fuel in the ethanol production process (ERG 2006).

Available information was compiled from the industry on wastewater generation rates, which ranged from 1.25 gallons per gallon ethanol produced (for dry milling) to 10 gallons per gallon ethanol produced (for wet milling) (Ruocco 2006a,b; Merrick 1998; Donovan 1996; and NRBP 2001). COD concentrations were also found to be about 3 g/L (Ruocco 2006a; Merrick 1998; White and Johnson 2003). The amount of wastewater treated anaerobically was estimated, along with how much of the CH₄ is recovered through the use of biomethanators (ERG 2006). Methane emissions were then estimated as follows:

$$\text{Methane} = [\text{Production} \times \text{Flow} \times \text{COD} \times 3.785 \times (\% \text{Plants}_o \times \% \text{WW}_{a,p} \times \% \text{COD}_p) + [\% \text{Plants}_a \times \% \text{WW}_{a,s} \times \% \text{COD}_s] + [\% \text{Plants}_t \times \% \text{WW}_{a,t} \times \% \text{COD}_s]) \times B_o \times \text{MCF} \times \% \text{Not Recovered}] + [\text{Production} \times \text{Flow} \times 3.785 \times \text{COD} \times (\% \text{Plants}_o \times \% \text{WW}_{a,p} \times \% \text{COD}_p) + [\% \text{Plants}_a \times \% \text{WW}_{a,s} \times \% \text{COD}_s] + [\% \text{Plants}_t \times \% \text{WW}_{a,t} \times \% \text{COD}_s]) \times B_o \times \text{MCF} \times (\% \text{Recovered}) \times (1 - \text{DE})] \times 1/10^9$$

where,

- Production = gallons ethanol produced (wet milling or dry milling)
- Flow = gallons wastewater generated per gallon ethanol produced (1.25 dry milling, 10 wet milling)
- COD = COD concentration in influent (3 g/l)
- 3.785 = conversion, gallons to liters

%Plants _o	= percent of plants with onsite treatment (100%)
%WW _{a,p}	= percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in primary treatment (0%)
%COD _p	= percent of COD entering primary treatment (100%)
%Plants _a	= percent of plants with anaerobic secondary treatment (33.3% wet, 75% dry)
%Plants _t	= percent of plants with other secondary treatment (66.7% wet, 25% dry)
%WW _{a,s}	= percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in anaerobic secondary treatment (100%)
%WW _{a,t}	= percent of wastewater treated anaerobically in other secondary treatment (0%)
%COD _s	= percent of COD entering secondary treatment (100%)
B _o	= maximum methane producing capacity (0.25 g CH ₄ /g COD)
MCF	= methane conversion factor (0.8 for anaerobic systems)
% Recovered	= percent of wastewater treated in system with emission recovery
% Not Recovered	= 1 - percent of wastewater treated in system with emission recovery
DE	= destruction efficiency of recovery system (99%)
1/10 ⁹	= conversion factor, g to Gg

A time series of CH₄ emissions for 1990 through 2012 was developed based on production data from the Renewable Fuels Association (RFA 2013).

Petroleum Refining. Petroleum refining wastewater treatment operations have the potential to produce CH₄ emissions from anaerobic wastewater treatment. EPA's Office of Air and Radiation performed an Information Collection Request (ICR) for petroleum refineries in 2011.²⁵⁴ Of the responding facilities, 23.6 percent reported using non-aerated surface impoundments or other biological treatment units, both of which have the potential to lead to anaerobic conditions (Aguiar et al. 2013). In addition, the wastewater generation rate was determined to be 26.4 gallons per barrel of finished product (Aguiar et al. 2013). An average COD value in the wastewater was estimated at 0.45 kg/m³ (Benyahia et al. 2006).

The equation used to calculate CH₄ generation at petroleum refining wastewater treatment systems is presented below:

$$\text{Methane} = \text{Flow} \times \text{COD} \times \text{TA} \times \text{B}_o \times \text{MCF}$$

where,

Flow	= Annual flow treated through anaerobic treatment system (m ³ /year)
COD	= COD loading in wastewater entering anaerobic treatment system (kg/m ³)
TA	= Percent of wastewater treated anaerobically on site
B _o	= maximum methane producing potential of industrial wastewater (default value of 0.25 kg CH ₄ /kg COD)
MCF	= methane conversion factor (0.3)

A time series of CH₄ emissions for 1990 through 2012 was developed based on production data from the Energy Information Association (EIA 2013).

Domestic Wastewater N₂O Emission Estimates

N₂O emissions from domestic wastewater (wastewater treatment) were estimated using the IPCC (2006) methodology, including calculations that take into account N removal with sewage sludge, non-consumption and industrial/commercial wastewater N, and emissions from advanced centralized wastewater treatment plants:

- In the United States, a certain amount of N is removed with sewage sludge, which is applied to land, incinerated, or landfilled (N_{SLUDGE}). The N disposal into aquatic environments is reduced to account for the sewage sludge application.
- The IPCC methodology uses annual, per capita protein consumption (kg protein/person-year). For this inventory, the amount of protein available to be consumed is estimated based on per capita annual food availability data and its protein content, and then adjusts that data using a factor to account for the fraction of protein actually consumed.

²⁵⁴ Available online at <<https://refineryicr.rti.org/>>.

- Small amounts of gaseous nitrogen oxides are formed as byproducts in the conversion of nitrate to N gas in anoxic biological treatment systems. Approximately 7 g N₂O is generated per capita per year if wastewater treatment includes intentional nitrification and denitrification (Scheehle and Doorn 2001). Analysis of the 2004 CWNS shows that plants with denitrification as one of their unit operations serve a population of 2.4 million people. Based on an emission factor of 7 g per capita per year, approximately 21.2 metric tons of additional N₂O may have been emitted via denitrification in 2004. Similar analyses were completed for each year in the inventory using data from CWNS on the amount of wastewater in centralized systems treated in denitrification units. Plants without intentional nitrification/denitrification are assumed to generate 3.2 g N₂O per capita per year.

N₂O emissions from domestic wastewater were estimated using the following methodology:

$$N_2O_{TOTAL} = N_2O_{PLANT} + N_2O_{EFFLUENT}$$

$$N_2O_{PLANT} = N_2O_{NIT/DENIT} + N_2O_{WOUT NIT/DENIT}$$

$$N_2O_{NIT/DENIT} = [(US_{POPND}) \times EF_2 \times F_{IND-COM}] \times 1/10^9$$

$$N_2O_{WOUT NIT/DENIT} = \{[(US_{POP} \times WWTP) - US_{POPND}] \times F_{IND-COM} \times EF_1\} \times 1/10^9$$

$$N_2O_{EFFLUENT} = \{ \{ [((US_{POP} \times WWTP) - (0.9 \times US_{POPND})) \times Protein \times F_{NPR} \times F_{NON-COM} \times F_{IND-COM}] - N_{SLUDGE} \} \times EF_3 \times 44/28 \} \times 1/10^6$$

where,

N ₂ O _{TOTAL}	= Annual emissions of N ₂ O (Gg)
N ₂ O _{PLANT}	= N ₂ O emissions from centralized wastewater treatment plants (Gg)
N ₂ O _{NIT/DENIT}	= N ₂ O emissions from centralized wastewater treatment plants with nitrification/denitrification (Gg)
N ₂ O _{WOUT NIT/DENIT}	= N ₂ O emissions from centralized wastewater treatment plants without nitrification/denitrification (Gg)
N ₂ O _{EFFLUENT}	= N ₂ O emissions from wastewater effluent discharged to aquatic environments (Gg)
US _{POP}	= U.S. population
US _{POPND}	= U.S. population that is served by biological denitrification (from CWNS)
WWTP	= Fraction of population using WWTP (as opposed to septic systems)
EF ₁	= Emission factor (3.2 g N ₂ O/person-year) – plant with no intentional denitrification
EF ₂	= Emission factor (7 g N ₂ O/person-year) – plant with intentional denitrification
Protein	= Annual per capita protein consumption (kg/person/year)
F _{NPR}	= Fraction of N in protein, default = 0.16 (kg N/kg protein)
F _{NON-COM}	= Factor for non-consumed protein added to wastewater (1.4)
F _{IND-COM}	= Factor for industrial and commercial co-discharged protein into the sewer system (1.25)
N _{SLUDGE}	= N removed with sludge, kg N/yr
EF ₃	= Emission factor (0.005 kg N ₂ O -N/kg sewage-N produced) – from effluent
0.9	= Amount of nitrogen removed by denitrification systems (EPA 2008)
44/28	= Molecular weight ratio of N ₂ O to N ₂

U.S. population data were taken from the U.S. Census Bureau International Database (U.S. Census 2013) and include the populations of the United States, American Samoa, Guam, Northern Mariana Islands, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. The fraction of the U.S. population using wastewater treatment plants is based on data from the 1989, 1991, 1993, 1995, 1997, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2009, and 2011 American Housing Survey (U.S. Census 2011). Data for intervening years were obtained by linear interpolation and data from 2012 were forecasted using 1990-2011 data. The emission factor (EF₁) used to estimate emissions from wastewater treatment for plants without intentional denitrification was taken from IPCC (2006), while the emission factor (EF₂) used to estimate emissions from wastewater treatment for plants with intentional denitrification was taken from Scheehle and Doorn (2001). Data on annual per capita protein intake were provided by the U.S. Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service (USDA 2012). Protein consumption data for 2007 through 2012 were extrapolated from data for 1990 through 2006. An emission factor to estimate emissions from effluent (EF₃) has not been specifically estimated for the United States, thus the default IPCC value (0.005 kg N₂O-N/kg sewage-N produced) was applied. The fraction of N in protein (0.16 kg N/kg protein) was also obtained from IPCC (2006). The factor for non-

consumed protein and the factor for industrial and commercial co-discharged protein were obtained from IPCC (2006). Sludge generation was obtained from EPA (1999) for 1988, 1996, and 1998 and from Beecher et al. (2007) for 2004. Intervening years were interpolated, and estimates for 2005 through 2012 were forecasted from the rest of the time series. An estimate for the N removed as sludge (N_{SLUDGE}) was obtained by determining the amount of sludge disposed by incineration, by land application (agriculture or other), through surface disposal, in landfills, or through ocean dumping. In 2012, 280 Gg N was removed with sludge. Table 8-15 presents the data for U.S. population, population served by biological denitrification, population served by wastewater treatment plants, available protein, protein consumed, and nitrogen removed with sludge.

Table 8-15: U.S. Population (Millions), Population Served by Biological Denitrification (Millions), Fraction of Population Served by Wastewater Treatment (%), Available Protein (kg/person-year), Protein Consumed (kg/person-year), and Nitrogen Removed with Sludge (Gg-N/year)

Year	Population	Population _{ND}	WWTP Population	Available Protein	Protein Consumed	N Removed
1990	253	2.0	75.6	38.4	29.3	215.6
2005	300	2.7	78.8	39.8	30.5	260.3
2007	305	2.8	79.4	40.7	31.2	265.9
2008	308	2.9	79.4	40.8	31.3	268.7
2009	311	2.9	79.3	40.9	31.4	271.4
2010	313	3.0	80.0	41.0	31.5	274.2
2011	316	3.0	80.6	41.1	31.6	277.0
2012	318	3.0	80.4	41.2	31.6	279.8

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The overall uncertainty associated with both the 2012 CH₄ and N₂O emission estimates from wastewater treatment and discharge was calculated using the IPCC Good Practice Guidance Tier 2 methodology (2000). Uncertainty associated with the parameters used to estimate CH₄ emissions include that of numerous input variables used to model emissions from domestic wastewater, and wastewater from pulp and paper manufacture, meat and poultry processing, fruits and vegetable processing, ethanol production, and petroleum refining. Uncertainty associated with the parameters used to estimate N₂O emissions include that of sewage sludge disposal, total U.S. population, average protein consumed per person, fraction of N in protein, non-consumption nitrogen factor, emission factors per capita and per mass of sewage-N, and for the percentage of total population using centralized wastewater treatment plants.

The results of this Tier 2 quantitative uncertainty analysis are summarized in Table 8-16. Methane emissions from wastewater treatment were estimated to be between 9.3 and 15.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. at the 95 percent confidence level (or in 19 out of 20 Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulations). This indicates a range of approximately 27 percent below to 21 percent above the 2012 emissions estimate of 12.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. N₂O emissions from wastewater treatment were estimated to be between 1.2 and 10.1 Tg CO₂ Eq., which indicates a range of approximately 75 percent below to 100 percent above the 2012 emissions estimate of 5.03 Tg CO₂ Eq.

Table 8-16: Tier 2 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for CH₄ Emissions from Wastewater Treatment (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate ^a			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound (%)	Upper Bound (%)
Wastewater Treatment	CH₄	12.8	9.3	15.4	-27%	+21%
Domestic	CH ₄	7.8	5.8	10.1	-26%	+29%
Industrial	CH ₄	4.9	2.4	6.9	-51%	+41%
Wastewater Treatment	N₂O	5.03	1.2	10.1	-75%	+100%

^a Range of emission estimates predicted by Monte Carlo Stochastic Simulation for a 95 percent confidence interval.

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above. Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed on activity data, documentation, and emission calculations. This effort included a Tier 1 analysis, including the following checks:

- Checked for transcription errors in data input;
- Ensured references were specified for all activity data used in the calculations;
- Checked a sample of each emission calculation used for the source category;
- Checked that parameter and emission units were correctly recorded and that appropriate conversion factors were used;
- Checked for temporal consistency in time series input data for each portion of the source category;
- Confirmed that estimates were calculated and reported for all portions of the source category and for all years;
- Investigated data gaps that affected emissions estimates trends; and
- Compared estimates to previous estimates to identify significant changes.

All transcription errors identified were corrected. The QA/QC analysis did not reveal any systemic inaccuracies or incorrect input values.

Recalculations Discussion

Production data were updated to reflect revised USDA NASS datasets. In addition, a new source of data was identified for pulp and paper production and incorporated this inventory year. These data were used to revise production values of wood pulp and paper and paperboard for 2002 through 2012. In addition, the most recent USDA ERS data were used to update protein values from 1990 through 2006. The updated ERS data also resulted in small changes in forecasted values from 2007.

Using the information summarized in Bicknell et al. (2013) and Aguiar et al. (2013), both pulp and paper and petroleum refining estimates were updated to be consistent with the most current and representative data available for these industries. Primarily due to these new data, overall industry emissions from industrial wastewater treatment decreased by 40% from the 1990-2011 Inventory.

In addition, an improved forecasting methodology for domestic wastewater resulted in small changes to both nitrous oxide and methane emissions beginning in 2005.

Planned Improvements

The methodology to estimate CH₄ emissions from domestic wastewater treatment currently utilizes estimates for the percentage of centrally treated wastewater that is treated by aerobic systems and anaerobic systems. These data come from the 1992, 1996, 2000, and 2004 CWNS. The question of whether activity data for wastewater treatment systems are sufficient across the time series to further differentiate aerobic systems with the potential to generate small amounts of CH₄ (aerobic lagoons) versus other types of aerobic systems, and to differentiate between anaerobic systems to allow for the use of different MCFs for different types of anaerobic treatment systems, continues to be explored. The CWNS data for 2008 were evaluated for incorporation into the inventory, but due to significant changes in format, this dataset is not sufficiently detailed for inventory calculations. However, additional information and other data continue to be evaluated to update future years of the inventory, including anaerobic digester data compiled by the North East Biosolids and Residuals Association (NEBRA) in collaboration with several other entities. These data, available at www.biogasdata.org, are still preliminary, and not yet complete for

inclusion in the inventory. EPA will continue to monitor the status of these data as a potential source of digester, sludge, and biogas data from POTWs.

Data collected under the EPA's GHGRP will be investigated for use in improving the emission estimates for the industrial wastewater category. Particular attention will be made to ensure time series consistency, as the facility-level reporting data from EPA's GHGRP are not available for all inventory years as reported in this inventory. In implementing improvements and integration of data from EPA's GHGRP, the latest guidance from the IPCC on the use of facility-level data in national inventories will be relied upon.²⁵⁵ For all industries, EPA will continue to review new research on industrial wastewater characteristics, utilization of treatment systems, and associated greenhouse gas emissions as it becomes available. Before the incorporation of any new data, EPA will ensure it is representative of industry conditions.

Wastewater inventory submissions from other countries will be reviewed for additional data and methodologies that could be used to inform the US wastewater inventory calculations. Items to be investigated include emission factors, specific methodologies, and additional industries that could be used to improve or supplement the wastewater treatment emissions calculations. In addition to this investigation, EPA will investigate reports from the Global Water Research Coalition to inform potential updates to the inventory based on international research.

Currently, for domestic wastewater, it is assumed that all aerobic wastewater treatment systems are well managed and produce no CH₄ and that all anaerobic systems have an MCF of 0.8. Efforts to obtain better data reflecting emissions from various types of municipal treatment systems are currently being pursued by researchers, including the Water Environment Research Federation (WERF). This research includes data on emissions from partially anaerobic treatment systems. In addition, information on flare efficiencies are being reviewed for potential updates to the inventory.

With respect to estimating N₂O emissions, the default emission factors for indirect N₂O from wastewater effluent and direct N₂O from centralized wastewater treatment facilities have a high uncertainty. Research is being conducted by WERF to measure N₂O emissions from municipal treatment systems and is periodically reviewed for its utility for the inventory. In addition, a literature review has been conducted focused on N₂O emissions from wastewater treatment to determine the state of such research and identify data to develop a country-specific N₂O emission factor or alternate emission factor or method. Such data will continue to be reviewed as they are available to determine if a country-specific N₂O emission factor can or should be developed, or if alternate emission factors should be used. EPA will also follow up with the authors of any relevant studies, including those from WERF, to determine if there is additional information available on potential methodological revisions.

Previously, new measurement data from WERF were used to develop U.S.-specific emission factors for CH₄ emissions from septic systems and incorporated it into the inventory emissions calculation. Due to the high uncertainty of the measurements for N₂O from septic systems, estimates of N₂O emissions were not included. Appropriate emission factors for septic system N₂O emissions will continue to be investigated as the data collected by WERF indicate that septic soil systems are a source of N₂O emissions.

In addition, the estimate of N entering municipal treatment systems is under review. The factor that accounts for non-sewage N in wastewater (bath, laundry, kitchen, industrial components) also has a high uncertainty. Obtaining data on the changes in average influent N concentrations to centralized treatment systems over the time series would improve the estimate of total N entering the system, which would reduce or eliminate the need for other factors for non-consumed protein or industrial flow. The dataset previously provided by the National Association of Clean Water Agencies (NACWA) was reviewed to determine if it was representative of the larger population of centralized treatment plants for potential inclusion into the inventory. However, this limited dataset was not representative of the number of systems by state or the service populations served in the United States, and therefore could not be incorporated into the inventory methodology. Additional data sources will continue to be researched with the goal of improving the uncertainty of the estimate of N entering municipal treatment systems.

The value used for N content of sludge continues to be investigated. This value is driving the N₂O emissions for wastewater treatment and is static over the time series. To date, new data have not been identified that would be able to establish a time series for this value. The amount of sludge produced and sludge disposal practices will also be

²⁵⁵ See: <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/meeting/pdffiles/1008_Model_and_Facility_Level_Data_Report.pdf>.

investigated. In addition, based on UNFCCC review comments, improving the transparency of the fate of sludge produced in wastewater treatment will also be investigated.

A review of other industrial wastewater treatment sources for those industries believed to discharge significant loads of BOD and COD has been ongoing. Food processing industries have the highest potential for CH₄ generation due to the waste characteristics generated, and the greater likelihood to treat the wastes anaerobically. However, in all cases there is dated information available on U.S. treatment operations for these industries. Previously, organic chemicals, the seafood processing industry, and coffee processing were investigated to estimate their potential to generate CH₄. Due to the insignificant amount of CH₄ estimated to be emitted and the lack of reliable, up-to-date activity data, these industries were not selected for inclusion in the inventory. Preliminary analyses of the beer and malt and dairy products industries have been performed. These industries will continue to be investigated for incorporation. Other industries will be reviewed as necessary for inclusion in future years of the inventory using EPA's Permit Compliance System and Toxics Release inventory.

8.3 Waste Incineration (IPCC Source Category 6C)

As stated earlier in this chapter, CO₂, N₂O, and CH₄ emissions from the incineration of waste are accounted for in the Energy sector rather than in the Waste sector because almost all incineration of municipal solid waste (MSW) in the United States occurs at waste-to-energy facilities where useful energy is recovered. Similarly, the Energy sector also includes an estimate of emissions from burning waste tires and hazardous industrial waste, because virtually all of the combustion occurs in industrial and utility boilers that recover energy. The incineration of waste in the United States in 2012 resulted in 12.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. emissions, over half of which is attributable to the combustion of plastics. For more details on emissions from the incineration of waste, see Section 3.3 of the Energy chapter.

Additional sources of emissions from waste incineration include non-hazardous industrial waste incineration and medical waste incineration. As described in Annex 5 of this report, data are not readily available for these sources and emissions estimates are not provided. Further investigations will be made, including assessing the applicability of state-level data collected for EPA's National Emission Inventory (NEI).²⁵⁶

8.4 Composting (IPCC Source Category 6D)

Composting of organic waste, such as food waste, garden (yard) and park waste, and sludge, is common in the United States. Advantages of composting include reduced volume in the waste material, stabilization of the waste, and destruction of pathogens in the waste material. The end products of composting, depending on its quality, can be recycled as fertilizer and soil amendment, or be disposed in a landfill.

Composting is an aerobic process and a large fraction of the degradable organic carbon in the waste material is converted into carbon dioxide (CO₂). Methane (CH₄) is formed in anaerobic sections of the compost, but it is oxidized to a large extent in the aerobic sections of the compost. Anaerobic sections are created in composting piles when there is excessive moisture or inadequate aeration (or mixing) of the compost pile. The estimated CH₄ released into the atmosphere ranges from less than 1 percent to a few percent of the initial C content in the material (IPCC 2006). Depending on how well the compost pile is managed, nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions can be produced. The formation of N₂O depends on the initial nitrogen content of the material and is mostly due to nitrogen oxide (NO_x) denitrification during the later composting stages. Emissions vary and range from less than 0.5 percent to 5 percent of the initial nitrogen content of the material (IPCC 2006). Animal manures are typically expected to generate more N₂O than, for example, yard waste, however data are limited.

²⁵⁶ See <<http://www.epa.gov/ttn/chief/eiinformation.html>>.

From 1990 to 2012, the amount of material composted in the United States has increased from 3,810 Gg to 18,919 Gg, an increase of approximately 397 percent. From 2000 to 2012, the amount of material composted in the United States has increased by approximately 27 percent. Emissions of CH₄ and N₂O from composting have increased by the same percentage. In 2012, CH₄ emissions from composting (see Table 8-17 and Table 8-18) were 1.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. (75.7 Gg), and N₂O emissions from composting were 1.8 Tg CO₂ Eq. (5.7 Gg). The wastes composted primarily include yard trimmings (grass, leaves, and tree and brush trimmings) and food scraps from residences and commercial establishments (such as grocery stores, restaurants, and school and factory cafeterias). The composted waste quantities reported here do not include backyard composting. The growth in composting since the 1990s is attributable to primarily two factors: (1) steady growth in population and residential housing, and (2) the enactment of legislation by state and local governments that discouraged the disposal of yard trimmings in landfills. Most bans on disposal of yard trimmings initiated in the early 1990s (U.S. Composting Council 2010). By 2010, 25 states, representing about 50 percent of the nation's population, have enacted such legislation (BioCycle, 2010). Despite these factors, the total amount of waste composted exhibited a downward trend between 2008 and 2009 and then started recovering every year after that, but it is still not at the same level it was in 2008 (see Table 8-17). The percent change between 2008 and 2012 is approximately 6 percent. The same trend is observed in the total waste generated and is consistent with trends in the United States economy, e.g., the beginning of the recession in 2008.

Table 8-17: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Composting (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH ₄	0.3	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6
N ₂ O	0.4	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.8
Total	0.7	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.3

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 8-18: CH₄ and N₂O Emissions from Composting (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
CH ₄	15.2	74.6	80.2	75.3	73.2	75.1	75.7
N ₂ O	1.1	5.6	6.0	5.6	5.5	5.6	5.7

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Methodology

Methane and N₂O emissions from composting depend on factors such as the type of waste composted, the amount and type of supporting material (such as wood chips and peat) used, temperature, moisture content and aeration during the process.

The emissions shown in Table 8-17 and Table 8-18 were estimated using the IPCC default (Tier 1) methodology (IPCC 2006), which is the product of an emission factor and the mass of organic waste composted (note: no CH₄ recovery is expected to occur at composting operations):

$$E_i = M \times EF_i$$

where,

- E_i = CH₄ or N₂O emissions from composting, Gg CH₄ or N₂O,
- M = mass of organic waste composted in Gg,
- EF_i = emission factor for composting, 4 g CH₄/kg of waste treated (wet basis) and 0.3 g N₂O/kg of waste treated (wet basis) (IPCC 2006), and
- i = designates either CH₄ or N₂O.

Estimates of the quantity of waste composted (M) are presented in Table 8-19. Estimates of the quantity composted for 1990, 2005 and 2007 through 2010 were taken from *Municipal Solid Waste in the United States: 2010 Facts and Figures* (EPA 2011); estimates of the quantity composted for 2006 were taken from EPA's *Municipal Solid Waste In The United States: 2006 Facts and Figures* (EPA 2007); estimates of the quantity composted for 2011 were taken from EPA's *Municipal Solid Waste In The United States: 2011 Facts and Figures* (EPA 2013); estimates of

the quantity composted for 2012 were calculated using the 2011 quantity composted and a ratio of the U.S. population in 2011 and 2012 (U.S. Census Bureau 2013).

Table 8-19: U.S. Waste Composted (Gg)

Activity	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Waste Composted	3,810	18,643	20,049	18,824	18,298	18,779	18,919

Source: EPA 2007, EPA 2011 and EPA 2013.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

The estimated uncertainty from the 2006 IPCC Guidelines is ± 50 percent for the Tier 1 methodology. Emissions from composting in 2012 were estimated to be between 1.7 and 5.0 Tg CO₂ Eq., which indicates a range of 50 percent below to 50 percent above the actual 2012 emission estimate of 3.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (see Table 8-20).

Table 8-20 : Tier 1 Quantitative Uncertainty Estimates for Emissions from Composting (Tg CO₂ Eq. and Percent)

Source	Gas	2012 Emission Estimate (Tg CO ₂ Eq.)	Uncertainty Range Relative to Emission Estimate (%)			
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Composting	CH ₄ , N ₂ O	3.3	1.7	5.0	-50%	+50%

Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above. Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

QA/QC and Verification

A QA/QC analysis was performed for data gathering and input, documentation, and calculation. A primary focus of the QA/QC checks was to ensure that the amount of waste composted annually was correct according to the latest EPA *Municipal Solid Waste In The United States: Facts and Figures* report (EPA 2013).

Recalculations Discussion

The estimated amount of waste composted in 2011 was updated relative to the previous Inventory based on new data contained in EPA's *Municipal Solid Waste In The United States: 2011 Facts and Figures* (EPA 2013). The amounts of CH₄ and N₂O emissions estimates presented in Table 8-17 and Table 8-18 were revised accordingly. No methodological changes were made.

Planned Improvements

In the future, additional efforts will be made to improve the estimates of CH₄ and N₂O emissions from composting. For example, a literature search may be conducted to determine if emission factors specific to various composting systems and composted materials are available. Further cooperation with estimating emissions in cooperation with the LULUCF Other section will be made.

8.5 Waste Sources of Indirect Greenhouse Gases

In addition to the main greenhouse gases addressed above, waste generating and handling processes are also sources of indirect greenhouse gas emissions. Total emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOCs from waste sources for the years 1990 through 2012 are provided in Table 8-21.

Table 8-21: Emissions of NO_x, CO, and NMVOC from Waste (Gg)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
NO_x	+	2	2	1	1	1	1
Landfills	+	2	2	1	1	1	1
Wastewater Treatment	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Miscellaneous ^a	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
CO	1	7	6	5	5	5	5
Landfills	1	6	5	5	5	4	4
Wastewater Treatment	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Miscellaneous ^a	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
NMVOCs	673	114	54	49	44	38	38
Wastewater Treatment	57	49	23	21	19	17	17
Miscellaneous ^a	557	43	20	18	17	15	15
Landfills	58	22	10	9	8	7	7

^a Miscellaneous includes TSDFs (Treatment, Storage, and Disposal Facilities under the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act [42 U.S.C. § 6924, SWDA § 3004]) and other waste categories.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Does not exceed 0.5 Gg.

Methodology

Emission estimates for 1990 through 2012 were obtained from data published on the National Emission Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emission Trends web site (EPA 2013), and disaggregated based on EPA (2003). Emission estimates for 2012 for non-EGU and non-mobile sources are held constant from 2011 in EPA (2013). Emission estimates of these gases were provided by sector, using a “top down” estimating procedure—emissions were calculated either for individual sources or for many sources combined, using basic activity data (e.g., the amount of raw material processed) as an indicator of emissions. National activity data were collected for individual source categories from various agencies. Depending on the source category, these basic activity data may include data on production, fuel deliveries, raw material processed, etc.

Uncertainty and Time-Series Consistency

No quantitative estimates of uncertainty were calculated for this source category. Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above. Methodological recalculations were applied to the entire time-series to ensure time-series consistency from 1990 through 2012. Details on the emission trends through time are described in more detail in the Methodology section, above.

9. Other

The United States does not report any greenhouse gas emissions under the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) “Other” sector.

10. Recalculations and Improvements

Each year, emission and sink estimates are recalculated and revised for all years in the Inventory of U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks, as attempts are made to improve both the analyses themselves, through the use of better methods or data, and the overall usefulness of the report. In this effort, the United States follows both the *IPCC Good Practice Guidance* (IPCC 2000) and the 2006 IPCC Guidelines (IPCC 2006), which states, “Both methodological changes and refinements over time are an essential part of improving inventory quality. It is *good practice* to change or refine methods” when: available data have changed; the previously used method is not consistent with the IPCC guidelines for that category; a category has become key; the previously used method is insufficient to reflect mitigation activities in a transparent manner; the capacity for inventory preparation has increased; new inventory methods become available; and for correction of errors.”

The results of all methodological changes and historical data updates made in this year’s report are presented in this section; detailed descriptions of each recalculation are contained within each source’s description found in this report, if applicable. Table 10-1 summarizes the quantitative effect of these changes on U.S. greenhouse gas emissions and sinks and Table 10-2 summarizes the quantitative effect on annual net CO₂ fluxes, both relative to the previously published U.S. Inventory (i.e., the 1990 through 2011 report). These tables present the magnitude of these changes in units of teragrams of carbon dioxide equivalent (Tg CO₂ Eq.).

The Recalculations Discussion section of each source’s section presents the details of each recalculation. In general, when methodological changes have been implemented, the entire time series (i.e., 1990 through 2011) has been recalculated to reflect the change, per IPCC (2006). Changes in historical data are generally the result of changes in statistical data supplied by other agencies.

The following ten emission sources and sinks, which are listed in absolute descending order of annual change in emissions or sequestration between 1990 and 2011, underwent some of the most significant methodological and historical data changes. A brief summary of the recalculations and/or improvements undertaken is provided for each of the ten sources.

- *Agricultural Soil Management (N₂O)*. Methodological recalculations in the current Inventory were associated with the following improvements: 1) Driving the DAYCENT simulations with input data for the excretion of C and N onto Pasture/Range/Paddock based on national livestock population data instead being internally generated by the DAYCENT model (note that revised total PRP N additions increased from 6.9 to 7.2 Tg N on average); 2) expanding the number of experimental study sites used to quantify model uncertainty for direct N₂O emissions and bias correction; 3) refining the temperature algorithm that is used for simulating crop production and carbon inputs to the soil in the DAYCENT biogeochemical model; and (4) recalculation of Tier 2 organic soil N₂O emissions using annual data from the NRI rather than estimating emissions for every 5 years and holding emissions constant between the years. These changes resulted in an increase in emissions of approximately 23 per cent on average relative to the previous Inventory and a decrease in the upper bound of the 95 percent confidence interval for direct N₂O emissions from 40 to 29 percent. The differences are mainly due to the refinement of temperature algorithm in the model and expansion of the number of field studies used to develop the statistical function for estimating uncertainty in the model structure and parameters. In particular, additional studies showed very high N₂O emissions during some years that were not captured by DAYCENT. This resulted in a relatively large adjustment in a portion of the DAYCENT simulated N₂O emissions to capture the high N₂O emission rates.

- *Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (CO₂)*. Changes were driven by modification to the flux estimates for Settlements Remaining Settlements and Cropland Remaining Cropland. These changes were influenced by the following:
 - A major change was made in the urban trees methodology, which previously relied on a national estimate of net sequestration per unit tree cover, a national estimate of urban area, and national estimate of tree cover percentage. The new methodology uses reported state level estimates of gross sequestration, state level totals for urban area, and state level urban tree cover percentages.
 - Changes were made to mineral and organic soil carbon stocks methodology temperature algorithm that is used for simulating crop production and carbon inputs to the soil in the DAYCENT biogeochemical model; increasing the number of experimental sites that are used to evaluate the structural uncertainty in the DAYCENT model; and recalculation of Tier 2 organic soil C emissions.
 - The quantity of applied minerals reported for agricultural liming in the previous Inventory for 2010 has been revised; the updated activity data for 2010 for limestone are approximately 29 thousand metric tons less and the 2010 data for dolomite are approximately 433 thousand metric tons greater than the data used for the previous Inventory. And updated published 2011 data from the *Minerals Yearbook* have replaced those used in the previous Inventory to calculate the quantity of minerals applied to soil and the emissions from liming.
 - In the current Inventory, July to December 2009 and July to December 2010 urea application data were updated based on new activity data for fertilizer years 2010 and 2011, and the 2009 and 2010 emission estimates were revised accordingly. Similarly, the July to December 2011 urea application data were updated with assumptions for fertilizer year 2012, and the 2011 emission estimate was revised accordingly.

- *Natural Gas Systems (CH₄)*. EPA received information and data related to the emission estimates through the Inventory preparation process and previous Inventories' formal public notice periods. EPA carefully evaluated all relevant information provided, and updates were made to estimates for completions with hydraulic fracturing and workovers with hydraulic fracturing (refracturing), Natural GasSTAR reductions, and well counts and completion and workover counts. Emission estimates will continue to be refined to reflect the most robust data and information available. The recalculations in the current Inventory relative to the previous report primarily impacted CH₄ emission estimates in the production sector, which for the year 2011, decreased from 53.4 Tg CO₂ Eq. in the previous Inventory to 42.6 Tg CO₂ Eq. in the current Inventory.

- *Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances (HFCs)*. A review of the Mobile Vehicle Air Conditioning (MVAC) light-duty vehicle (LDV) and light-duty truck (LDT) end-uses led to revisions in the assumed transition scenarios, stock and growth rate assumptions, and equipment lifetime. Updated annual sales and registration data was used to update the installed base, annual growth rate, and lifetime for the MVAC end-uses. In addition, although HFC-134a has been the dominant refrigerant in MVACs since the 1990s, an additional transition to HFO-1234yf was added to the Vintaging Model beginning with vehicles manufactured in 2012 to reflect a recent shift in new vehicles to HFO-1234yf. Overall, these changes to the Vintaging Model increased GHG emissions on average by 7 percent across the time series relative to the previous report.

- *Enteric Fermentation (CH₄)*. Recalculations were made relative to the previous Inventory due to changes in activity data, including the following:
 - In the previous Inventory, aggregation in the 1992 feedlot cattle was linked incorrectly. This correction resulted in a decrease in emissions for that year of 0.2 percent.
 - The USDA published minor revisions in several categories that affected historical emissions estimated for cattle in 2011, including dairy cow milk production for several states and cattle populations for January 1, 2012. These changes had an insignificant impact on the overall results.
 - Calves 4-6 months were added to emissions estimates for the first time in the current Inventory. The inclusion of calves has increased emissions from beef cattle by approximately 3 percent per year. In addition, for the first time calf populations for enteric fermentation were differentiated into dairy and beef calves. During this process, total calf populations were updated slightly, so that the enteric fermentation calf populations differ an average of 0.9 percent per year from manure management calf populations.

- Horse population data was obtained for 1987 and 1992 from USDA census data, resulting in a change in population estimates for 1990 through 1996. This resulted in an average decrease of 6.3 percent for those years relative to the previous report.
 - Populations of American bison and mules and asses were revised to extrapolate data beyond the 2007 census based on a linear trend rather than following trends in bison slaughter and holding values constant. These changes resulted in average decrease of 3.2 percent and increase of 31.4 percent, respectively, for those years. Additionally, the name of this population group was revised from mules, burros, and donkeys to mules and asses to be consistent with the IPCC CRF tables.
- *Wastewater Treatment (CH₄ and N₂O).* In the current Inventory, production data were updated to reflect revised USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS) datasets, relative to the previous report. In addition, a new source of data was identified for pulp and paper production and incorporated into the current Inventory. These data were used to revise production values of wood pulp and paper and paperboard for 2002 through 2012. In addition, the most recent USDA Economic Research Service (ERS) data were used to update protein values from 1990 through 2006. The updated ERS data also resulted in small changes in forecasted values from 2007. Using the information summarized in Bicknell, et al. (2013) and Aguiar, et al. (2013), both pulp and paper and petroleum refining estimates were updated to be consistent with the most current and representative data available for these industries. Primarily due to these new data, overall industry emissions from industrial wastewater treatment decreased by 40 percent from the 1990-2011 Inventory report. In addition, an improved forecasting methodology for domestic wastewater resulted in small changes to both N₂O and CH₄ emissions beginning in 2005.
 - *Carbon Emitted from Non-Energy Uses of Fossil Fuels (CO₂).* Relative to the previous Inventory, emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels decreased by an average of 3.2 Tg CO₂ Eq. (2.3 percent) across the entire time series. Changes ranged from an increase of about 3 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 1990 to a decrease of about 13 Tg CO₂ Eq. in 2009. The main catalyst for these recalculations was changes to historic fossil fuel consumption input data acquired from the Energy Information Administration (EIA). The EIA annually revises its fossil fuel consumption estimates, which may affect previously-reported Inventory emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels. Since the methodology for calculating emissions from non-energy uses of fossil fuels remained the same relative to the previous Inventory, changes to consumption input data is the primary cause of the recalculations. Overall, the net effect of these changes was a slight decrease in emission estimates across the entire time series. In addition, EPA's *National Emissions Inventory (NEI) Air Pollutant Emissions Trends Data* released updated data in December 2013, which included new data through 2011 and revised data for previous years. Additionally, EPA's *MSW Facts and Figures* was released in February 2014, which included data for 2012 and revised data for prior years.
 - *Coal Mining (CH₄).* For the current Inventory, updated mine maps were received for the Jim Walter Resources Blue Creek #4 and #7 mines (JWR 2010) that showed changes in the planned locations of areas to be mined through. The updated mine plans provided a more accurate depiction of the dates and locations at which the pre-drainage wells were mined through. As a result, the mined-through dates were adjusted for some wells relative to the previous Inventory, and underground emissions avoided values changed slightly for 2011. Prior to the current Inventory, vented degasification emissions from underground coal mines were typically estimated based on drainage efficiencies reported by either the mining company or Mine Safety and Health Administration (MSHA). However, beginning in 2011, underground coal mines began reporting CH₄ emissions from degasification systems to EPA under its GHGRP, which requires degasification quantities to be measured weekly, thus offering a more accurate account than previous methods. As a result, data reported to EPA's GHGRP in 2012 were used to estimate vented degasification volumes for those mines. In 2012, GHGRP-reported vented degasification emission totals were approximately 30 percent lower when compared to the previous estimation method; however, the difference only represents approximately 1.5 percent of the overall coal mining emission inventory. In 2012, the surface mining emission factor was revised downward from 200 percent to 150 percent of the average *in situ* CH₄ content of the mined coal seam. In previous Inventory reports, a 200 percent factor was used as a conservative measure due to a lack of U.S. data. Based on surface mine emissions studies conducted used in Canada and Australia (King 1994, Saghatfi 2013), this emission factor was adjusted to more closely align with those studies where actual measurements have been taken of similar coals. While the gas content of the coal accounts for CH₄ liberated from the mined coal, this emission factor accounts for

additional CH₄ released from the over- and under-lying strata surrounding the mined coal seam. The change was made across the entire time series.

- *Fossil Fuel Combustion (CO₂)*. The Energy Information Administration (EIA 2014) updated energy consumption statistics across the time series relative to the previous Inventory. One such revision is the inclusion of past residential coal estimates into commercial coal statistics for the years 2008 to 2011. These revisions primarily impacted the previous emission estimates from 2008 to 2011; however, additional revisions to industrial and transportation petroleum consumption as well as industrial natural gas and coal consumption impacted emission estimates across the time series. Overall, these changes resulted in an average annual increase of 1.3 Tg CO₂ Eq. (less than 0.1 percent) in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion for the period 1990 through 2011, relative to the previous report.
- *Rice Cultivation (CH₄)*. An updated literature review of rice emission factor estimates was conducted for the current Inventory, resulting in an updated set of regional rice emission factors. In the previous Inventory, two U.S. average emission factors were applied to rice area harvested—one for the primary crop (210 kg CH₄/hectare-season) and one for the ratoon crop (780 kg CH₄/hectare-season). The updated emission factors, based on the recent literature, replace the primary crop emission factor with two California-specific emission factors based on flooding practices and an updated non-California primary crop emission factor of 237 kg CH₄/hectare-season. The new emission factors were applied across the full time series, as they represent the same assumptions about rice cultivation practices. The change in emission factors resulted, on average, in an 8.3 percent increase in emissions from 1990 to 2011.

Table 10-1: Revisions to U.S. Greenhouse Gas Emissions (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Gas/Source	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	Average Annual Change
CO₂	(0.1)	2.9	(7.9)	(11.8)	(14.1)	(20.7)	(1.5)
Fossil Fuel Combustion	(3.5)	4.2	2.8	3.3	(3.2)	(6.1)	1.3
Electricity Generation	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Transportation	+	+	0.5	(1.5)	1.2	2.9	0.1
Industrial	(3.5)	4.2	2.1	4.9	(4.7)	(4.5)	1.3
Residential	+	+	(0.7)	(0.7)	0.2	(3.8)	(0.2)
Commercial	+	+	1.0	0.6	0.1	(0.6)	+
U.S. Territories	NC	+	NC	NC	NC	(0.1)	+
Non-Energy Use of Fuels	3.4	(1.7)	(11.5)	(15.9)	(12.0)	(13.2)	(3.2)
Natural Gas Systems	+	0.1	0.1	+	+	2.7	0.2
Cement Production	+	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.6
Lime Production	(0.1)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.3)
Other Process Uses of Carbonates	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	0.2	+
Glass Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Soda Ash Production and Consumption	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)
Carbon Dioxide Consumption	NC	NC	NC	NC	0.1	+	+
Incineration of Waste	NC	+	+	+	+	0.1	+
Titanium Dioxide Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	(0.2)	+
Aluminum Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	(4.3)	(0.2)
Ferroalloy Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Ammonia Production	NC	NC	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.1
Urea Consumption for Non-Agricultural Purposes	NC	NC	NC	+	0.4	(0.3)	+
Phosphoric Acid Production	0.1	0.1	+	+	+	+	0.1
Petrochemical Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Lead Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC

Zinc Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+	+
Cropland Remaining Cropland	NC	NC	NC	+	0.2	(0.3)	+
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
Petroleum Systems	+	NC	NC	NC	+	+	+
<i>Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Sink)^a</i>	(36.6)	(32.9)	(78.4)	(79.0)	(79.2)	(75.3)	(30.7)
<i>Biomass – Wood^a</i>	+	+	1.9	4.5	(0.5)	2.4	0.5
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	0.3	+
<i>Biomass – Ethanol^a</i>	NC	NC	NC	+	+	0.1	+
CH₄	(4.2)	(7.9)	(12.8)	(7.3)	(7.2)	(8.9)	(8.0)
Stationary Combustion	+	+	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.1	+
Mobile Combustion	NC	+	+	+	+	+	+
Coal Mining	(3.0)	(3.3)	(3.6)	(3.2)	(3.2)	(3.4)	(3.1)
Abandoned Underground Coal Mines	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
Natural Gas Systems	(4.8)	(7.0)	(11.8)	(7.8)	(8.9)	(11.5)	(8.2)
Petroleum Systems	0.6	(0.4)	(1.2)	(1.4)	(1.3)	(1.0)	(0.1)
Petrochemical Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Silicon Carbide Production and Consumption	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Iron and Steel Production & Metallurgical Coke Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Ferroalloy Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Enteric Fermentation	5.2	5.5	5.6	5.5	5.6	5.6	5.5
Manure Management	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rice Cultivation	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.6
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	0.1	+	+	+	+	0.1	+
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	(0.2)	+
Landfills	+	(0.4)	0.7	2.0	3.2	4.3	0.4
Wastewater Treatment	(2.8)	(3.1)	(3.3)	(3.4)	(3.4)	(3.3)	(3.2)
Composting	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
Incineration of Waste	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
N₂O	54.3	59.7	73.6	73.5	65.4	60.3	56.4
Stationary Combustion	+	+	+	0.1	+	(0.4)	+
Mobile Combustion	NC	+	+	+	+	+	+
Adipic Acid Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Nitric Acid Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	0.3	+
Manure Management	+	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
Agricultural Soil Management	54.2	59.8	73.6	73.6	65.6	60.6	56.4
Field Burning of Agricultural Residues	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Wastewater Treatment	NC	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.1)
N ₂ O from Product Uses	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Incineration of Waste	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Settlements Remaining Settlements	NC	NC	NC	+	+	+	+
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	+	0.1	0.1	0.1	+	(0.2)	+
Composting	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
Wetlands Remaining Wetlands	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
<i>International Bunker Fuels^a</i>	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	+	+
HFCs	NC	4.8	18.6	23.2	22.7	19.6	6.2
Substitution of Ozone Depleting Substances	NC	4.8	18.7	23.3	22.9	19.8	6.2
HCFC-22 Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Semiconductor Manufacture	NC	+	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.2)	+
PFCs	NC	(0.6)	(1.5)	(1.2)	(2.2)	(1.0)	(0.4)
Aluminum Production	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC
Semiconductor Manufacture	NC	(0.6)	(1.5)	(1.2)	(2.2)	(1.0)	(0.4)
SF₆	NC	(0.3)	(0.7)	(0.2)	(0.3)	1.4	(0.1)
Electrical Transmission and Distribution	NC	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.5)	(0.5)	0.2	(0.1)
Semiconductor Manufacture	NC	(0.2)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.6)	(0.2)	(0.1)

Magnesium Production and Processing	NC	+	+	0.7	0.9	1.5	0.1
Net Change in Total Emissions^b	50.0	58.5	69.3	76.2	64.4	50.7	
Percent Change	0.8%	0.8%	1.0%	1.2%	0.9%	0.8%	

+ Absolute value does not exceed +5 Tg CO₂ Eq. or +5 percent.

Parentheses indicate negative values

NC (No Change)

^a Not included in emissions total.

^b Excludes net CO₂ flux from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry, and emissions from International Bunker Fuels.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

Table 10-2: Revisions to Annual Net CO₂ Fluxes from Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry (Tg CO₂ Eq.)

Component: Net CO₂ Flux From Land Use, Land-Use Change, and Forestry	1990	2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	Average Annual Change
Forest Land Remaining Forest Land	(7.8)	(22.2)	(37.7)	(38.1)	(38.1)	(33.6)	(9.3)
Cropland Remaining Cropland	(17.8)	(8.8)	(24.7)	(24.7)	(24.7)	(24.7)	(11.5)
Land Converted to Cropland	5.8	7.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	5.3
Grassland Remaining Grassland	(4.3)	6.6	(0.4)	(0.5)	(0.6)	(0.7)	1.9
Land Converted to Grassland	0.3	2.0	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.2
Settlements Remaining Settlements	(12.9)	(17.4)	(17.9)	(18.1)	(18.2)	(18.4)	(16.0)
Other	NC	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.4)	(0.1)
Net Change in Total Flux	(36.6)	(32.9)	(78.4)	(79.0)	(79.2)	(75.3)	
Percent Change	-4.6%	-3.3%	-8.7%	-8.9%	-8.9%	-8.3%	

NC (No Change)

Note: Numbers in parentheses indicate a decrease in estimated net flux of CO₂ to the atmosphere, or an increase in net sequestration.

Note: Totals may not sum due to independent rounding.

+ Absolute value does not exceed 0.05 Tg CO₂ Eq. or 0.05 percent

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